

**STUDY ON FACTORS INFLUENCING JOB SWITCHING
BEHAVIOR OF NEPALESE BANKER**

A Thesis

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RECOMMENDATION

This is to certify that the thesis

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Entitled

Study on Factors Influencing Job Switching Behavior of Nepalese Banker

has been prepared as approved by this program in the prescribed format of the faculty of the management. This thesis is forwarded for examination.

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And found the thesis to be the original work of the student and written according to the prescribed format. We recommended the thesis to be accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Master of Business Studies (MBS).

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the work reported in this thesis entitled “**Study on Factors Influencing Job Switching Behaviors of Nepalese Banker**” has been submitted to office of the Dean, Faculty of Management, Tribhuvan University is my original work. It is done in the form of partial fulfillment for the Master os Business Studies (MBS) under the supervision and guidance of Prof.Dr. Sushil Bhakta Mathema of Nepal Commerce Campus.

No part of the research has been submitted to any others University/Institutions by me or by anybody and conferred with any degree or diploma.

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Binita Thapa
Researcher

Table of Contents

RECOMMENDATION

VIVA-VOCE SHEET

DECLARATION

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CHAPTER I	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem.....	3
1.3 Objectives of the Study.....	5
1.4 Significance of the Study.....	5
1.5 Hypotheses.....	6
1.6 Operational Definitions.....	6
1.7 Limitations of the Study.....	7
1.8 Organization of the Study	7
CHAPTER II.....	9
REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	9
2.1 Job	9
2.2 Job hopping.....	10
2.3 Factors affecting the Job Mobility	19
2.3.1 Job satisfaction	19

2.3.2 Pay/Salary	21
2.3.3 Affective commitment	24
2.3.4 Perceived organizational support.....	26
2.3.5 Job Promotion.....	28
2.3.6 Career Growth	30
2.3.7 Work stress	31
2.3.8 Company Reputation	33
2.4 Theoretical Framework	36
CHAPTER III.....	39
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	39
3.1 Research Plan and Design	39
3.2 Type of Study	39
3.3 Sample Description	40
3.3.1 Population.....	40
3.3.2 Sample Size	40
3.4 Sources of Data	40
3.4.1 Primary Sources.....	40
3.4.2 Secondary Data Sources	41
3.5 Pilot Study	41
3.6 Data Collection Instrument	41
3.7 Administration of Instruments	42
3.8 Measurement	42
3.9 Validity and Reliability.....	43
3.10 Data Analysis	43
Chapter IV.....	45
DATA PRESENTATIONS AND ANALYSIS	45
4.1 Respondents' Profile	45
4.1.1 Gender of Respondents.....	46
4.1.2 Marital Status.....	47
4.1.3 Age group of Respondents	48

4.1.4 Academic Qualification of Respondents	49
4.1.5 Job Designation	50
4.1.6 Job Tenure	51
4.1.7 Job Hopping as Personal Choice	52
4.1.8 Recruiters prefers to non job hoppers than frequent job switchers	53
4.1.9 Job as a common trend	54
4.1.10 Job change within next two years	55
4.2 Descriptive Analysis	55
4.2.1 Descriptive study of job hoping factors.....	56
4.2.2 Descriptive Analysis of Job satisfaction.....	58
4.2.3 Descriptive analysis of Pay/Salary	60
4.2.3 Descriptive analysis of Job promotion	62
4.2.4 Descriptive analysis of Career growth.....	64
4.3 Hypothesis Test.....	67
4.3.1 Job satisfaction and Job switching.....	67
4.3.2 Job Pay/Salary and Job switching	68
4.3.3 Job Promotion and Job switching	69
4.3.4 Career growth and Job switching	69
4.4 Major Findings of the Study	70
Chapter V	72
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	72
5.1 Summary of Findings.....	72
5.2 Conclusion	73
5.3 Recommendations.....	74

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1	Questionnaire Design.....	42
Table 3.2	Chronbach's Alpha coefficients.....	43
Table 4.1	Gender of Respondents.....	46
Table 4.2	Marital Status.....	47
Table 4.3	Age group of Respondents.....	48
Table 4.4	Academic qualification of Respondents.....	49
Table 4.5	Job Designation.....	50
Table 4.6	Job Tenure.....	51
Table 4.7	Job hopping as Personal Choice.....	52
Table 4.8	Recruiters' prefers to non job hoppers than frequent job switchers.....	53
Table 4.9	Job as a common trend.....	54
Table 4.10	Job switching within next two years.....	55
Table 4.11	Descriptive study of Job hoping behavior.....	56
Table 4.12	Descriptive Analysis of Job satisfaction.....	58
Table 4.13	Descriptive analysis of Pay/ Salary.....	60
Table 4.14	Descriptive analysis of Job promotion.....	62
Table 4.15	Descriptive analysis of Career growth.....	64
Table 4.16	Correlation between Job satisfaction dimension and Job switching.....	68
Table 4.17	Correlation between Job Pay/Salary dimension and Job switching.....	68

Table 4.18 Correlation between Job Promotion dimension and Job switching.....69

Table 4.19 Correlation between Career growth dimension and Job switching.....70

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1	Theoretical Frameworks.....	42
Figure 4.1	Gender of Respondents.....	46
Figure 4.2	Marital Statuses.....	47
Figure 4.3	Age group of Respondents.....	48
Figure 4.4	Academic Qualification of Respondents.....	49
Figure 4.5	Job Description.....	50
Figure 4.6	Job Tenure.....	51
Figure 4.7	Job Hopping as Personal Choice.....	52
Figure 4.8	Recruiters prefers to non hoppers than frequent job switchers.....	53
Figure 4.9	Job as a common trend.....	54
Figure 4.10	Job change within next two years.....	55
Figure 4.11	Frequency Analysis of job hoping factors.....	57
Figure 4.12	Frequency Analysis of Job satisfaction.....	59
Figure 4.13	Descriptive analysis of Pay/Salary.....	61
Figure 4.14	Descriptive analysis of Job promotion.....	63
Figure 4.15	Descriptive analysis of Career growth.....	65

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ASID	American Society of Interior Designer
CA	Chartered Accountant
HR	Human Resource
HSE	Health and Safety Executives
IT	Information Technology
MWD	Measurement While Drilling
NIOSH	National Institute of Occupational Health and Safety
NRB	Nepal Rastriya Bank
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation Development
POS	Perceived Organizational Support
SNA	Special Needs Assistants
SPSS	Statistical Package Social Science Software

Chapter I

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Skilled and talented human capital is on a very high demand today, more than ever. It is the new inventions and changing technologies that is forever creating new avenues and further accelerating this demand. The human resource is the most critical resource which determines the success and failure of the organization. The intelligence, creativity and thoughtfulness make human resource important in organizations. Human resource or employees utilize other resources and work for company benefits and lead towards success. Human resources are not only resource in itself but are those components that are entitled to effectively utilize other resources available in an organization. Their role in an organization can be like giving contribution for formulation strategy, effective utilization financial resources, executive/specialists role in the areas that needs it, facilitator to achieve the organization's goal and so on.

But every organization no matter that is bigger or smaller in size has always faced the problem of management of human capital. There are different aspects that tend to become obstacles and hinder the optimum utilization of the resources and most of the time they are called Human Resource Chronicles. Job Hopping is also considered as one of the HR Chronicles. There used to be time when people used to be stick with the single job for years and get retired from that job. But those days are gone. Now situation has been changed; job longevity has become the past. The average worker today stays at each of his or her jobs for 4.4 years, but in case of the workforce's youngest employees is about half of that (Bureau of Labor Statistics, US). As it is commonly said that human needs are never ending, an individual may prefer to change his/her job in order to command a higher compensation package/higher designation. This strategy can be termed as Job Hopping. The actual introduction time of the term "job hopping" has not been cleared till

now. Ghiselli has explained it as the periodic itch to move from a job in one place to some other job in some other place. He argued that this wanderlust is derived from instinctive impulses and does not seem to result from organized logical thought, but rather from the internal impulsiveness of individuals.

Over the past decades the problem of job-hopping has become a global problem. In today's economic uncertainty, for employees will see job-hopping as a way to provide job security for them. Employees often leave before downsizing occurs or take temporary jobs to pay the bills after layoffs have occurred, looking out for themselves and their families. Employees want work-life balance benefits to retain their quality of life and loyalty to family, not company, as well as career enhancement benefits to provide skills for their next job should a layoff occur.

One of the major concerns of Nepalese banking sector is that they are facing the intense problem of employee turnover. The banking sector of Nepal is one of most attractive, popular and charming job offering market in terms of the job status, pay/benefits, career growth etc. however there is high employee turnover fact in Nepalese banking sector. Though the history of job hopping has not been monitored or recorded in the papers as done for other subjects, the buzz of this concept has shaken the very concept of human resource assets and capital of the organization. If the organization has a skilled employee at their company but they are not able to retain him/her then there will be no use of having the retention policies. A company may discard the resume of a job hopper while recruiting but it may not always be able to stop its employee from switching the jobs. Previously, if one listed a series of jobs on their resume, employers branded them as unstable. In short, they are regarded as not a team player or a company person. The new thinking is job-hoppers are priceless assets who are more experienced and marketplace-savvy than someone who has held one job for a long time. If people haven't moved in two or two-and-a-half years, they are regarded as worth less because an experience always counts.

According to The Free Dictionary, job hopping is the practice of changing jobs frequently, especially as a means of quick financial gain or career advancement. This

definition has addresses the economic gain and the career growth opportunities are the prime reasons behind job switching. In Nepal too majority of bank employees frequently changes their job in hope to get more compensation for their new tenure. Not only salaries, they also get chances to developed their career in banking sector as they get opportunities to get experiences by working with different organizations. Abelson (1993) defined turnover culture as the shared cognition by organizational members that influence their decisions regarding job movement. Turnover culture makes hopping from one job to the other an acceptable behavior. If an employee has not changed his or her job for a long time, he or she feels increasing pressure to do so because of social influences/turnover culture. Abelson forwarded very distinctive cause for the job mobility. According to him sometimes people goes for job hopping due to the influences from the social members like family members, friends, coworkers, close relatives and so on.

Research conducted by ASID find that physical and work environment play role in employees decision whether to leave the job or stay and consider as a major factors in employee retention. The outcome of this research advocate on working environment as cause for job switching which in Nepal's context has moderate affect on job mobility. Hence, there need to have enough study related to job hopping behavior of the employees is needed in the organization in order to determine the major cause for it and its likely impact on the organization.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

These days, job hopping is practically a way of life, spending four decades at one company, ultimately retiring with lump sum amount and pension plan is quite uncommon. A candidate's resume with four different jobs in the space of six years would have been tossed in the garbage by most recruiters 20 years ago; he would have been viewed as an unreliable job hopper. But now in the time of information and change where most of the employees would like to view themselves as a "free agent", whom a recruiter can't disregard as distrustful the job hoppers.

The job hopping trend has been very common world-wide and is also similar in Nepal as well. Gradually the job switching trend has been adopted by employees in Nepal. There

used to be time when majority of people were attracted towards government job. Whenever the government announces public service entrance examination there will be huge line for form submission. The reason behind this trend is most of the Nepalese wanted permanent and secured job. But this number has been slightly reduced due the end of elder generation who prefer permanent job. Beside government jobs, banking sector is one which has been continuously providing job opportunities to numerous manpower of Nepal. The youth of current generation are very dynamic and more careers focused and looking for high status oriented job. These days they dream about having their future in banking industries. In the other hand this sector has provided better career growth opportunities. Side by side the banking sector has been offering numerous facilities to attract them. And the result is frequency of job changing habits in youth has been observed.

The bank supervision report of NRB (2012) suggested that there is lack of proper staff retention policy and Nepalese banks are facing high staff turnover. And the report said that one of the reasons for high staff turnover is job dissatisfaction. Though the banks pays higher amount of salary to the employees, there is tremendous level of high job turnover. The employees are not switching their job to other banks but leaving the industry as a whole and engaging to other sector. The cost of retaining old employees with the new is estimated up to the twice the employee's annual salary Get les Mckeown's (2002). He means to say that the cost of acquiring new employees is very much costly than retaining the existing employee where as in other side the turnover has been seen high in many organizations and employees, it is very much essential to retain the existing employees.

Although there are many research works conducted in the field of job hopping behavior of employees all over the world, however the similar kinds of study is very limited and insufficient in Nepal especially in banking sector. Therefore, this study will examine the impact of organizational support, emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction and affected commitment on Job hopping behavior of employees working in banks in Kathmandu valley, this research is guided by the following questions:

- How job satisfaction, pay/salary, employee promotion and career growth influence on job hopping behaviors of Nepalese bankers?
- Which factors has major influence on job switching intention of bank employees?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

Job hopping/switching is major problem in an organization. The root cause problem and the reasons for it are needed to be studied. The study of job Hopping gives meaning and some facts related to job mobility behaviors of people working in the banks in Nepal. In Nepalese context, very few studies are related with job hopping has been studied. The major objectives of this study are as follows:

- To study the factors affecting job hopping in the banking sectors of Nepal
- To determine the relationship between job satisfactions and job hopping behavior.
- To identify the relationship between employees' promotion and job hopping behavior.
- To find out the relationship between career growth and job hopping behavior.
- To determine the relationship between pay/benefits and job hopping behavior.
- To identify the most influential factors that affects the job hopping behaviors of the bank employees.

The researcher hopes that the findings of this study would provide a foundation for understanding of job hopping behaviors of Nepalese bankers and its effect on Nepalese banking sector.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The prime purpose of this research is to find out the relationship of job hopping with the factors affecting it. The study finds out the situation of job hopping in banking sector. Moreover, it determines the issues leading to the job mobility in the banks of Nepal. The study might be helpful to the Nepalese banking sector and in a broader sense to the Nepalese organizations too. The findings of the study would give information regarding the job mobility status of people working in commercial banks in Nepal. It is therefore,

results of the study will provide a better understanding to the banking industry about job mobility problems. This information will assist the organizations to formulate strategies related to human resources management like employee retention programs, trainings, performance appraisal, and compensation management and so on.

As already mentioned that there has been least research done regarding the job hopping behaviors of Nepalese bankers. Not only in banking segment there has been done very little research related to job hopping in overall organization in Nepal. Finally, this study will bring some new insights in the banking field and would provide guidelines for the future research works in Nepalese banking sector.

1.5 Hypotheses

Since this research is being conducted to find the influence of job switching factors like job satisfaction, pay/salary, job promotion and career growth on job switching behavior of the Nepalese bankers, following hypothesis are drawn:

H0₁: There is no significant relationship between job satisfactions and job hopping behaviors of the bank employees.

H0₂: There is no significant relationship between pay/benefits and job hopping behaviors of the bank employees..

H0₃: There is no significant relationship between employees' promotion and job hopping behaviors of the bank employees.

H0₄: There is no significant relationship between career growth and job hopping behaviors of the bank employees.

1.6 Operational Definitions

Job Hopping

Job Hopping is the practice of changing the job frequently. It's the pattern of changing the companies' time and again or sometimes even within the months. Job-hopping refers

to the case in which people's leaves his current firm and subsequently joins other position in another firm.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

This study has attempted to analyze the job hopping behaviors in Nepalese banking sector. As far known to the researcher, it has used the suitable methods and identified the research findings. However, every research has its limitations which can arise during and after data collection and interpretation. Moreover, this research is based on the selected commercial banks inside the Kathmandu valley.

Some of the limitations in this study are as follows:

- This research is entirely carried out in Kathmandu valley. The respondents may not be the representative of the whole population of banking sector in Nepal.
- Analysis is mainly based on primary as well as secondary data such as the website. The website information, published documents and the personal information have their own limitations.
- Data is collected through the self-administered questionnaire. The data is collected from the individual understanding of the respondents.
- The conditions under which the questionnaires were filled up by the respondents were not controlled. Every respondent filled up the questionnaires in different settings. The external environment may influence the respondents.
- Due to geographical and time constraint, respondents were only taken from Kathmandu valley.

1.8 Organization of the Study

The proposed study is organized into five chapters – Introduction, Literature Review and Theoretical Framework, Research Design and Methodology, Results and Discussions and Summary and Conclusion.

Chapter 1: Introduction

The first chapter introduces with the background of the Study, statement of the research problems, objectives of the study, significance of the study, hypothesis of the study, limitations of the study and operational definitions of the study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

The second chapter is differentiated into four parts which are literature on job hopping and literature on factors affecting job hopping. Also, theoretical framework was also illustrated and each variable were described in this chapter.

Chapter 3: Research Design and Methodology

The third chapter describes the methodology used for this study. This chapter introduces the introduction, research design, population and sample, nature and source of data, methods of analysis, nature of respondents, statistical tool used and methodological limitations.

Chapter 4: Results and Discussion

This chapter includes the analysis of the data which are gathered from the research and presentation of the data. This chapter also includes graphs, tables and findings of this study.

Chapter 5: Summary and Conclusion

The fifth chapter states about the summary, conclusion and suggestions for future research.

Chapter II

Review of literature and theoretical framework

2.1 Job

A job, which originally meant “a piece of work” or “a task” Bridges (1988), has now also taken on a similar definition to occupation and employment, “a specific duty or function or role,” and “a regular remunerative position” (MWD). In centuries past, these terms may have been used quite distinctively, but they are currently used almost interchangeably in ordinary language, and in the language of social science. Hamermesh et al. (1996) defines job as a distinct set of duties and responsibilities that the employer recognizes as being attached to a position of employment. Similar types of explanation is been given by the BusinessDictionary.com. It has explained the job as a group of homogeneous tasks related by similarity of functions. When performed by an employee in an exchange for pay, a job consists of duties, responsibilities, and tasks (performance elements) that are defined and specific, and can be accomplished, quantified, measured, and rated. From a wider perspective, a job is synonymous with a role and includes the physical and social aspects of a work environment. Often, individuals identify themselves with their job or role (foreman, supervisor, engineer, etc.) and derive motivation from its uniqueness or usefulness.

Davis and Haltiwanger 1998 jobs are filled by a worker with a labor contract. Job is all about the contractual relationship between the employers and the employees. Davis et al. (1996) define a job as an employment position filled by a worker. Job is the agreement between an employee and the employer SNA (2008). The employers themselves identify a job. Dictionary.com defines job as a piece of work, especially a specific task done as part of the routine of one's occupation or for an agreed price. Webster.com too has explained it as a piece of work; especially: a small miscellaneous piece of work undertaken on order at a stated rate. The job is principle activity in one's career life that they do to earn money. Thus job is the activity performed for some specific fee.

A job is collection of tasks, duties, and responsibilities, which as a whole is regarded as a regular assignment to individual employees Kul Narsingh (2006). Kul Narsingh explicates that every employees are delegated a job which is comprised of certain tasks along with duties and responsibilities. DeCenzo and Stephen P. Robbins (2005) too suggested that job is a set of closely related tasks carried out for pay. It consists of bundle of tasks. A job is building blocks of organization's structure. In essence the job is the base or pillar for any organization on which whole organization is dependent.

Job is the means for achieving goals. They are the link between people and organization. Organizations employ people because there job to be done. Jobs serve as the source of employment. Job helps to accomplish the organizational goal. People and organization are closely inter-dependent. Organization appoints people so that their task can be completed and on the hand, people are benefited with the employment opportunities

Types of job as suggested by Agrawal G.R (2006):

Independent job

There is no overlapping of activities among employees. Each activities of the organization will be independent of each other and employees too are independent to each other. In these kinds of job there will be no connection between on department to another department of organizations. It is rare in business world context.

Sequential Job

Activities of one employee are dependent of activities of other employees. Different jobs are interconnected, job cannot be accomplished independently.

Pooled Job

Activities of all employees are interdependent. All employees contribute to the final output. It is most common types of job.

2.2 Job hopping

Job hopping is the natural internal impulse to move from one job to another for sometimes no apparent or rational reason that is irrespective of whether they have better

alternative job offers or not Ghiselli (1974). From Ghiselli's definition it can be infer that the job hopping is the natural phenomena of switching from one job to another that occurs with some wise reason or sometimes without any factual reason. The author also describes this hobo syndrome behavior as the periodic itch to move from a job in one place to some other job in some other place. The hobo syndrome is observed by the number of times workers reportedly leave their jobs for another in their entire career.

Chew (1996) claims that job hoppers used to find alternative employments before quitting their jobs but the trend is to leave even before they have secured any alternative appointments. In Japan, the term "fretters," was coined during the bubble economy of the 1980s. They consist of high school leavers and fresh graduates (aged between 15 to 34 years old) who choose not to have regular full – time employment (Kondo, 2007). Such job hoppers like the mobility and freedom to be able to frequently change their jobs because they do know what exactly they want to do with their lives and career.

The yourdictionary.com in their official site define job hopping as the practice of changing jobs frequently, especially as a means of quick financial gain or career advancement. In their definition they have given emphasis on mainly on two factors for job switching; one is in to gain better salary/benefits and another to gain better career opportunities people tend to switch their frequently. Kawabe (1991) finds job hopping common among the knowledge intensive and information technology (IT) employees in Malaysia. He says that they are mostly driven by monetary reasons. However, he was quick to add that the situation is more prevalent in the more industrialized Asian countries like Singapore, Hong Kong, and Korea. Inagami (1998) agrees that job hopping was a common phenomenon among employees in Malaysia in the early 1990s. Their mobility was driven by the shortage of labor across the economic sectors. Malaysian and foreign workers, he notes, readily changed their jobs for as little as one Malaysian Ringgit. James (1991) concurs that money is not the main reason why some highly educated employees and those working in favorable labor markets job hop. They do so because of the availability of vast options in the job market.

According to Khatri et al. (1999), the definition of job hopping behavior varies from one country to another. They suggest two types of such behaviors based on their study in

Singapore. The first is when individuals change jobs because of their strong personal desire to try it for fun. The second type describes a turnover culture that is motivated by some social support. If employees have not changed their jobs for some time, they come under some social pressure from their co-workers to do so soon.

Annalee Saxenian (1994) was among the first to observe that high rates of mobility were a source of agglomeration economies in Silicon Valley. According to her the high rate of mobility among technical employees reinforced the benefits of modularity because skilled employees rapidly transferred from firms with inferior component designs to those with superior designs. Job-hopping between companies creates the likelihood that knowledge acquired in one firm is employed in another. Those knowledge spillovers can hamper innovation by reducing the rewards to investing in human capital, Gilson (1999). He brought attention to this assumption and observed that high rates of mobility by knowledgeable employees were likely to impose nontrivial costs on employers. These costs may cause employers to take actions to limit job-hopping even when the social benefits of agglomeration economies exceed the costs. “Non-compete” agreements, according to Gilson, are the most important legal mechanism for reducing inter-firm mobility. These agreements limit an employee’s ability to work with competing firms in a specific geographic area and for a specific period of time.

Lehmer and Ludsteck (2008) in their study analyze the employees might hop job to get returns from it. The impact of the job migrant could be both short term and long term which depends upon the level of skills they have. In their findings they found that the immediate impact is larger for the low skilled, whereas the high skilled workers reap larger long term gains. Knight and Yueh (2004) find that the job switching in the urban labor market is far more mobile than the urban residents. They consider the difference arising from the difference in the reservation wages between the two types. Thus, the different mobility is due to the segregation of the labor markets which, in turn, is responsible for the gap in the access to the good jobs. Kondo and Ou (2010), on the other hand, compares two types of permanent migrants and found that rural to urban migrants are more mobile across jobs and they are more likely to move to better jobs by changing work units, whereas urban migrants are more likely to be promoted within a work-unit.

Gao, Juan Luo, Tang (2013) Executive job-hopping refers to the case in which one executive leaves his current firm and subsequently takes an executive position in another firm (in most cases, for greater pay and/or higher position). They also found that firms raise pay more aggressively for incumbent executives when losing a higher-ranking executive to another firm, industry competitor, to a nearby company, and when the job-hopper is paid more in the new company than in the former one. In the similar study on Job hopping Balsam and Miharjo (2007) suggested that after losing top executives, firms not only pay their remaining managers more generously, but also structure the compensation package for the purpose of better retention. This means in order to retain the executives the organization designed their compensation package in such way they will have least intention to leave their job. Further they add the extent that managers whose incumbent compensation is already excessive are less likely to leave their current positions voluntarily. Likewise, it is easier for a manager to move to a new firm if there are a large number of same-industry companies Deng and Gao (2012), they find that the magnitude of pay growth is positively associated with the number of industry peer firms. Given that managers usually have better outside opportunities in industries that have more outside hiring (Cremers and Grinstein (2011), firms in these industries are found to have a greater pay raise after a job-hopping event. Moreover, Oyer (2004) shows that managers' outside employment opportunities are positively associated with market condition. Thus, managers have fewer outside opportunities in the market recession period. Gao, Juan Luo, Tang (2013) firms raise pay less during the market recession period in response to losing executives. When managers are approaching retirement or have already stayed in the firm for long, they are less likely to look for new jobs and thus have less mobility in the labor market Balsam and Miharjo (2007) and Gibbons and Murphy (1992).

Frydman (2005) proposes a shift in the importance of skills from firm-specific to more general managerial skills for top executives and theorizes that the shift leads to higher manager pay and higher mobility of executives. The conclusion of their findings is that whenever there is up gradation of specialized skills in executives, to get higher pay they tend to switch their job. Cremers and Grinstein (2011) find empirical evidence in favor of this explanation. Montgomery (1991) and Rees (1966) when one executive finds the

competing job offer more attractive and leaves for a new firm, other executives probably also find that the pay package from potential outside opportunities is appealing. Fee and Hadlock (2004) examine the new employment of executives after they are fired by their former employers and find that only about one-third of fired executives obtain top management positions afterwards and that the new firms are, on average, one-tenth as large as their former firms were they will be more likely to swift their job.

Job-hopping firms, on average, are two times bigger in sales than the non-job-hopping firms are, consistent with the view that managers in larger firms tend to have better outside opportunities Gabaix and Landier (2008). The reason is job-hopping firms are generally older and have slightly lower growth of sales, higher growth of cash holding, lower ROA, and lower stock volatility. Åstebro et al. (2011) argue that a history of job hopping is associated with a greater likelihood of entry into self-employment, and used a Korean data set to empirically show that higher number of job changes is indeed positively related to transition into self-employment. From their finding it can be infer that with the motive to turn themselves into entrepreneur they will like to numerous job experiences. The ultimate aim of job switcher is to start up their own business ventures. Further, Åstebro and Thompson (2011) use a dataset of Canadian inventors to investigate the motivations governing the choices of a varied labor market experience; they find that greater variety of labor market experience is resulting from the “taste for variety”. In this particular study it was found that individuals in a search variety of job experiences go for job change. Thus entrepreneurs have a richer job history and more varied experiences when compared to wage employees. Rosen (1972), “a large fraction of the directly marketable skills possessed by individuals are not acquired from formal schooling, but rather from work experience”; for which the person must engaged with more than one business organization. Experience in the wage sector provides skills, information, abilities also useful for entrepreneurs (Chatterj, 2009; Unger et al. 2009). Chatterji (2008) argues that work experience at an incumbent firm provides a number of valuable skills and resources for future entrepreneurs, including the ability to identify opportunities. It can be argued that entrepreneurs who accumulate experiences across different firms in the same industry are then exposed to a variety of environments and resources that improve their ability of opportunity identification. Fallick, Fleischman and Reibtzer

(1996) argue that frequent job-hopping facilitates the rapid reallocation of resources toward firms with the best innovations. This might mean that individuals who intend to become entrepreneurs are seeking to make the right kind of experience.

Jovanovic (1979) argues that this peculiarity is due to a lower firm-worker mismatch in the later stages of the career, as a result of the firm's learning about workers' ability. It is therefore observed that, on average, individuals at a later stage of their career will tend to be much less mobile than workers in the earlier stages of the career. This denotes job hopping varies according to the career stage of the individuals. It has been noted that late career workers have the tendency to remain in the same firm and present a limited tendency to job-hopping. Similarly Campion et al. (1994) show that job switching is more common for employees in early career than for those in late career suggesting that the former group may be more interested in the career benefits and the development of managerial talent stemming from experience in different positions within the firm. When considering the knowledge and skills acquisition and accumulation associated to different firm affiliations it can be noted that jobs tailored for workers in earlier stages of their career entail a larger learning component than jobs designed for a later career employee (Rosen, 1972): working at an early career stage is characterized by high levels of learning. Moreover, workers in the earlier stage of their career are subject to low switching costs. Switching costs in a sense that individuals who recently entered the labor force receive on average lower salaries than workers with higher tenure, which implies low opportunity costs. So for new enter switching to another job may be high opportunity loss as compared to the experiences one.

Gibbons and Waldman (2004), the promotions within the firm are structured in a way that minimizes the underutilization of task-specific human capital. This is likely to represent a high switching cost that individuals are confronted to when moving to another employer, since this component of human capital cannot be utilized in the new firm. Furthermore, the opportunity cost of mobility to another firm is substantially higher for late career employees than for workers who entered the labor force more recently, given higher salary earned by the former employees. Finegold et al. (2002) workers at the later stage of their career do not seem to take in great consideration opportunities to develop

technical skills when planning decisions about moving to a new firm. Arguably, workers at the later stage of their career who are affiliated to a large number of different employers prior to entry into self-employment do not do so in order to broaden their abilities and qualify as jack-of all- trades. Promotions minimize the underutilization of the human capital developed Helfat and Lieberman (2002). From this it can be analyzed that individuals who accumulate experience in different positions will exploit efficiently their human capital.

According to Mark McNulty, president HR dimension, whenever the managers sit for the job interview they always look at the resume to determine whether the candidate is job hopper or not. He further had explained that the reasons for job switching are for increased responsibility, new challenges and opportunities to develop new skills, or due to the performance issues and personal conflicts. Job-hopping by skilled engineers and scientists provides a vibrant channel for knowledge dissemination within industries Agarwal, Ganco, Ziedonis (2011). They mean to say that due to the transfer of skilled manpower within the same industry helps to share their expertise knowledge and experiences with each other. But further they added for firms losing key talent, such departures can deliver a double blow—not only do they lose valuable human capital but rivals stand to gain technological know-how at their expense. As a result, competitive advantage can be eroded. Arrow (1962) observed that employment turnover among engineers and scientists were a vehicle for transmitting technological “know-how” and information across firm boundaries. Levin et al. (1987) report that hiring employees from rivals increases the speed and efficiency with which established firms incorporate new technologies. Other numerous scholars have used patent citations to trace the effects of mobility on knowledge diffusion (e.g., Almeida and Kogut, 1999; Rosenkopf and Almeida, 2003; Oettl and Agrawal, 2008). Echoing results from managerial surveys (Levin et al., 1987; 4 Bhide, 1994), these citations-based studies further suggest that firms learn by hiring skilled engineers and scientists from rivals. Pakes and Nitzan (1983); Anton and Yao (1995); Kim and Marschke (2005); Hellman (2007); Cassiman and Ueda (2006); Franco and Filson (2006); Chatterjee and Rossi-Hansberg (2010) investigates the effects of employee turnover on inter-firm knowledge transfers, a separate strand of research

explores the intra-firm (employer-employee) dynamics that give rise to voluntary employee departures.

The only way to find a better job is to quit the one you had L. Chan, Picador (2008). This means until and unless the employees didn't have experiences of different job they will not get better job. The changing demographics of the labour market, enduring skills shortages and employee demand for work-life balance have created a so-called war for talent (Alleyne, 2005). Drucker (1994) feels that employees have an upper hand in the workplace as they are seen to hold the tool of trade through their knowledge. The bargaining power of employees in terms of their skills, talent, and knowledge lead them to impose pressure on employers. Van As (2001) believes that the high mobility of talented workers in South Africa is caused by factors like emigration of skilled workers and equity legislation that cause companies to chase numbers, forcing highly qualified Black talent to be mobile. Clark & Kleyn (2007) on their study on job hopping of African Black senior managers founded Black managers tend to leave organisations due to the environmental, organisational and individual factors Environmental factors are those that exist outside the boundaries of the organisation, including political factors, culture and behaviour, technological changes and economic and legal factors over which the organisation does not have direct control (Cook & Hunsaker, 2001). Organisational and individual factors are those that are a source of discomfort and push the individual to desire to leave the organisation (Clark & Kleyn, 2007).

(Kraemer & Bittlingmayer (2001) workers other than highly qualified, skilled and technical know-how are forced to switch jobs because of the pressures of quickly evolving occupational fields. This due to the increasing technological innovation and shorter product life cycles have all led to a continuous demand for highly qualified skilled workers where as the less qualified and older workers are increasingly required to undergo additional training. In particular, companies that operate globally look for competencies that are linked to mobility such as language skills or knowledge of foreign markets and cultures Winkelmann (2002, 290 f). The companies themselves claim, they hire foreign workers because of their good English language skills or their knowledge of foreign markets. He believes that the business organization are demanding employees due

to the competencies the employees have got like cross cultural sensitiveness, know-how of global markets etc.

Job changes can be initiated by the worker (the supply side of the labour relationship) or by the employer (the demand side) (Booth, Francesconi and Garcia-Serrano, 1999). Their study concluded that job mobility is an outcome of workers and employers trying to maximize their utility and profit, respectively. According to them if the workers feel that they will get better benefits from other jobs as compared to current job then they will be more likely to shift their current job and go for new one. When determining the utility of the current job and of the new job, the financial rewards are usually emphasized Groot and Verberne, (1997); they addressed on financial reward as the major utility for job change. But financial rewards alone may not be influencing the job mobility. A worker may also gain utility from other, non-wage job characteristics such as working conditions or the leisure time available to them. The starting wages offered by the new employer are usually known when making the decision to change job; however, knowledge about the actual non-wage conditions and future wage growth is only gained later Osberg et al (1986). From the employer's perspective, an employer will wish to end the employment relationship if the benefits from doing so (minus the costs of making the employee redundant) exceed the benefits of keeping the employee Booth, Francesconi and Garcia-Serrano (1999). Workers, in making their mobility decision, however, may not necessarily be able to evaluate the three factors of this equation correctly: their expectations of involuntary future job mobility may be influenced by fear or by other factors, so causing them to assess the situation incorrectly. Certain features of the current economic environment such as rapid shifts in technology, innovative forms of business organization, flexible workplace practices and intense competitive pressures cause a heightened perception of job insecurity in many countries (OECD, 1999), which leads people to expect greater forced job mobility than is actually the case.

Job mobility is the ability of workers to move up (or at times down) the scale of occupations inside an enterprise or from one enterprise to another within the same industry and across industries Acharya and Jose, (1991) In their definition two factors has been given more emphasizes; scale of occupations and sectors of occupation. The scale of

occupation refers to moving from one job to another job that can higher than present position or can lower position as compared to current job position. And sector means the individuals can swift to another job belonging to the same industry or sometimes could move to completely new industry. The concept further broadened over the years. Mobility between employer (Job-to-job mobility) Mobility between occupations and steps on career ladder mobility between different types of contracts In and out of employment (employment mobility) Anderson et al. (2008). Mamgain, Rani (2010) defines Job mobility as change in work status, change across occupations, change in industry groups, and change in enterprise.

2.3 Factors affecting the Job Mobility

2.3.1 Job satisfaction

The history of job satisfaction stems back to the early 1900's with the situations perspective on job satisfaction. This perspective states that satisfaction is determined by certain characteristics of the job and characteristics of the job environment itself. This view has been present in the literature since the first studies by Hauser, Taylor and the various projects at the Western Electric plants in Hawthorne (Cranny, Smith & Stone 1992). Job satisfaction is described as the positive attitude and emotion towards one's job and work environment (Locke, 1978). Job satisfaction has been defined as the degree to which employees have a positive affective orientation towards employment by the organization (Price, 1997). The positive feeling results from employees' perception of the extent to which their jobs complement their personal goals. Another defines job satisfaction as an affective (emotional) reaction to a job that results from the incumbents' comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired (Cranny, Smith, Stone, 1992). It reveals their value judgment about their expectations and perceptions of the effort they put in and the outcomes that they receive. Empirical findings suggest that satisfied employees are more likely to be affectively committed to their organization than those who are dissatisfied (Mathieu and Hamel, 1989; Williams and Hazer, 1986).

Job satisfaction is one of the most studied constructs in the areas of industrial organizational psychology, social psychology, organizational behavior, personnel and

human resource management, and organizational management. This makes sense in that knowledge of the determinants, the consequences, and other correlates of job satisfaction can be vital to organizational success Cranny, Smith & Stone (1992). Employers interested in remaining competitive in today's world economy need to concentrate on retaining quality employees. "Rewarding employees for work well-done increases satisfaction and productivity" Walker, (1998, p.18). Customer satisfaction and loyalty are excellent predictors of profitability, the strongest predictors of customer satisfaction: employees' general satisfaction with their jobs and employees' satisfaction with their work/life balance" McDonald & Hutcheson (1999, p.1). Results of studies comparing differences between age groups and level of job satisfaction report increases in job satisfaction with age Osipow, (1968). Osipow claims that there is positive relationship between the job satisfaction and the age level means that as the employees get more matured their satisfaction towards the job goes up.

Shields and Price (2002) and Appelbaum et al. (2003) look at intentions to quit and how these relate to job satisfaction. Shields and Price carry out a case study of nurses in Britain while Appelbaum et al. analyze low-wage, low-skilled workers in US hospitals. Both studies find that intentions to quit strongly correlate with job dissatisfaction. Martin & Roodt (2007) it is expected that individuals with a preference for intra-organizational career mobility may be more satisfied if they perceive that their organization provides career mobility opportunities. Thus Job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been proven to correlate negatively with career mobility, the greater the job satisfaction and organizational commitment, the lower the predictive turnover intention. In order to reduce the high costs incurred through employee turnover and to maintain a competitive advantage Kaplan et al., (2000), informed talent retention practices are required. Informed talent retention requires insight into all phenomena related to employee turnover. The literature shows that the relationship between perceived career mobility and job satisfaction should inform talent retention practices. Bočkerman and Ilmakunnas (2007). Using a Finnish data set, they find that job disamenities reduce job satisfaction, which in turn increases quit intentions and job changes.

Research has demonstrated that a high degree of job satisfaction is negatively correlated with job departures, even after controlling for wages and hours of work in cross-sectional designs (Flanagan, Strauss and Ulman, 1974; Freeman, 1978; Akerlof et al, 1988; Ward and Sloane 2000; Kristensen and Westergard-Nielsen, 2004). It has also been found that work-related intentions to leave a job and low job satisfaction are highly correlated (Shields and Price, 2002; Appelbaum et al, 2003). A number of studies have also demonstrated that job satisfaction recovers significantly after a job change (Akerlof et al, 1988; van der Velde and Feij, 1995; Swaen et al, (2002). McCormick, DeNisi, and Staw (1979), which states that individuals will tend to gravitate around occupations and jobs which ensure the best match between a worker's ability and job requirements, as well as with personal requirements and occupation-specific reward structures. The authors suggest that job mobility is the instrument to achieve such a better match.

2.3.2 Pay/Salary

Pay satisfaction is defined as the amount of overall positive affect (or feelings) the earliest to recognize the motivating effects of pay when he proposed that workers put forth extra effort on the job to maximize their economic gains. Their explanation put emphasis on pay and benefit as motivating factors for job performance. Pay has long been considered one of the most important organizational rewards Heneman & Judge (2000) because it allows employees to obtain other rewards (Lawler, 1971). Compensation satisfaction serves as a critical mediator between an organization's compensation policy and relevant behavioral and attitudinal outcomes (Blau, 1994; Lawler, 1981; Sturman & Short, 2000). Wren (1994), money remains the fundamental way that organizations reward employees. From the inception of organizational science, pay has been considered an important reward to motivate the behavior of employees (Taylor, 1911). Taylor advocates that the pay still has been taken as one the key tool to motivate the employees to retain in the organization no matter the organization today are of 21st century's. Yet it was not until theorists began exploring fairness in social exchanges Adams (1963);

Reinforcement theory (Skinner, 1953) suggests that pay acts as a general reinforce because of its repeated pairing with primary reinforcers. Pay/money is the major

influencer to motivate employees inside organization. People learn from life experiences that a primary need, such as food or shelter, can be satisfied if money is obtained. Dollard & Miller (1950) stated that people engage in behaviors because of past experiences, but the process by which past experiences determine an individual's future behavior remained unclear therefore whether treating pay as a means to an end or as an end itself, reinforcement theory does not provide a clear explanation for how pay acts as an impetus for action. Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory helped clarify how pay influences future behavior. Vroom (1964) suggests that pay motivates behavior only if valued by the employee or if pay allows individuals to obtain some other highly valued outcome.

Along with reinforcement (Skinner, 1953) and expectancy theories (Vroom, 1964), Herzberg (1968) in his two-factor theory explain why pay is generally regarded as a major mechanism for rewarding and modifying behavior (Opsahl & Dunnette, 1966). Herzberg's (1968) two-factor motivational model provides an important link between pay research and pay satisfaction research by suggesting that it is the individual's affective reaction to pay, pay satisfaction, that impacts motivation. Herzberg suggests pay is a hygiene, or contextual factor, that prevents an employee from being motivated by such things as the work itself. He suggests that if an organization wishes to motivate employees, the organization must first make sure pay and other hygiene factors are at such levels that dissatisfaction does not occur.

Equity theory of Festinger, (1957) also suggests that once an attitude regarding pay is formed, this attitude will cause individuals to act in certain ways, either maintaining their current behavior or changing their behavior in order to reach a state of satisfaction. Mobley's (1977) in his research determine that withdrawal cognition is the most immediate antecedent of voluntary turnover and that pay satisfaction is the most important determinant of turnover intentions. The conclusion of his study is that pay satisfaction may not be a direct determinant of turnover and future research should focus on the relationship between pay satisfaction and withdrawal cognitions.

According to Burdett (1978) once employed, the individual is able to continue searching and each firm the worker approaches offers the wage that is related to his productivity within the firm. The more intensely the worker searches, the higher is the arrival rate of

job offers. The worker switches jobs if the present value of the earnings stream in the alternative job exceeds that of the current job, after allowing for any costs incurred when switching jobs. Likewise Jovanovic (1979) explained job mobility allows for an improved sorting of workers among jobs, higher earnings may be expected.

Labor economists typically distinguish between two types of wages growth. First, *with in job wages growth* which means wage may grow over time with service with particular employer. Second, *between job wage growth*, workers may experience wage improvement when changing jobs. Borjas, Bronars, and Trejo (1992) wage gains may be contemporaneous with a move or may accrue with a lag as workers assimilate to their new environment. If economic returns to migration are worth coming immediately upon change of location, the gain must be realized in the form of between job wage improvements. However, if returns accrue over time they are likely to consist of both within and between job wage growths because workers may change jobs several times in their new location as part of assimilation process

Valérie Smeets 2006 found that the number of past job changes is positively related to wages. This result is consistent with the idea that workers changing firms end up with better matches than workers who do not change firms. He used panel of data to compute wage changes, and show that workers experiencing firm switches earn higher wage changes than other workers in Danish labor market. Becker (1973), in more dynamic extensions, a worker changes jobs when he receives an offer from a firm for which he is a better match and the higher wages exceed a switching cost. In other hand Search and switching cost theories predict that workers with more specific human capital and better matches will be less likely to leave their employers. This means the employees goes for switching their job until and unless that does provide the financial benefits and match their personalities with the job. Pavan (2005) conducted the survey in US market to analyze whether current wages are positively or negatively correlated with past firms changes. Later he found a positive correlation for firm changes and wage growth

2.3.3 Affective commitment

Organizational commitment refers to the attachment that individuals have towards their organizations (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). It refers to employees' loyalty to and their identification with the organization, as well as the internalization of organizational goals (Mowday et al., 1982). Mowday et al. suggest that when employees are committed to their organizations, they accept the corporate goals and values, and will go an extra mile to achieve organizational effectiveness. Much work has since been done conceptually and empirically to enable researchers and practitioners understand employee and organizational commitment better.

A plethora of research exists on organisational commitment, yet there is little consensus on the conceptualisation of this construct. In this study, organisational commitment refers to an attitude in terms of a stable mindset to the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). There are five approaches to conceptualising and measuring organisational commitment. The golden thread in all of these conceptualisations and measurements is that organisational commitment is a bond or linkage to the organisation (Roodt, 2004), and that a particular focus has the potential to fulfil salient needs (Martin & Roodt, 2007). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) highlight the following commonalities in the definitions of commitment: (a) it is a stabilising and obliging force; and (b) it provides direction to behaviour (e.g. restricts freedom and binds a person to a course of action). The differences involve details concerning the nature or origin of the stabilising force that gives direction to behaviour (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

The normative approach focuses on congruency between employee goals and values and organisational aims, which in turn result in an employee feeling obligated to their organisation (Suliman & Iles, 2000). There are both attitudinal and behavioural approaches to organisational commitment. The attitudinal approach refers to the process by which employees think about their relationship with the organisation, whereas the behavioural approach refers to the process by which employees become locked into an organisation and how they deal with this problem (Mowday et al., 1982; Scholl, 1981). According to the multi-foci approach, organisational commitment is directed toward different foci, such as the occupation, top management, supervisors, the team, co-

workers, the union and customers (Reichers, 1985; Wasti & Can, 2008). Whilst the multi-foci approach focuses on different contingencies within an organization, the multidimensional approach turns the focus toward the different forms of commitment. Meyer and Allen's (1991) multidimensional conceptualization of organizational commitment integrates normative, attitudinal and behavioral commitment to form a three-component model of organizational commitment, comprising of a cognitive, affective and cognitive component. Affective commitment arises from a sense of emotional attachment, continuance commitment is rooted in a sense of economic necessity, and normative commitment occurs out of a sense of moral obligation to remain (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007). Employees experiencing the different components remain with the organization for different reasons. Those experiencing affective commitment remain because they desire to do so, those experiencing continuance commitment remain because they need to, and those experiencing normative commitment remain due to a sense of obligation to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). There is critique of the multidimensional approach on the basis of a possible conceptual overlap between the affective and cognitive components (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Roodt, 2004), the possible one-dimensional nature of continuance commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001), and the possible diminished parsimony, clarity and precision due to the multidimensionality of this conceptualization (Roodt, 2004). From this, Roodt (2004) proposed a motivational one-dimensional conceptualization whereby organizational commitment is operationalized as a cognitive predisposition.

Despite the criticism, support exists for the dimensionality of the three-component model, as studies utilizing confirmatory factor analyses have found that these are better explained as separate factors, despite the high correlation that exists between affective and normative commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Meyer and Allen's (1991) conceptualization is utilized in this study due to the wealth of support for and research on these authors' approach to organizational commitment. In addition to the lack of consensus regarding the conceptualization of organizational commitment, authors' views differ regarding the development of organizational commitment and how it affects behavior (Meyer & Hercovitch, 2001). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) propose that affective commitment is developed through any variables, personal or situational, that

contribute to the likelihood that an individual will become intrinsically motivated to a course of action, and recognize the value of and/or develop identity from association with an entity or the pursuit of an action. These variables may include supervisor support and recognition (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Wayne et al., 2002); the perception of being treated fairly to enhance an employee's sense of personal importance and competence (Meyer & Allen, 1997); age, whereby older employees, or those with longer tenure, tend to be more committed (Levy, 2006); and gender (Mguqulwa, 2008).

According to Spector (2000), affective commitment occurs as a result of job conditions and met expectations, while continuance commitment occurs as a product of benefits accumulated from working for the organization and by a lack of alternative jobs. The latter is of particular interest to this study. Meyer and Allen (1991) propose that continuance commitment may develop as a result of the perception of a lack of alternatives. Whilst this view has received criticism, the implications of this argument are an interesting consideration for this study. It is argued that the relationship between continuance commitment and tenure is stronger than that between tenure and affective commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Findings regarding the relationship between tenure and organizational commitment are inconsistent (Martin & Roodt, 2007; Mguqulwa, 2008). Likewise, as discussed in the preceding section, studies regarding the relationship between gender and organizational commitment have yielded inconsistent results (Martin, 2007). Meyer and Allen (1997) hypothesize that early socialization processes may have an impact on employee normative commitment, as there is indirect evidence that suggests that employees with a need to fulfill their obligations to others are more likely to be normatively committed.

2.3.4 Perceived organizational support

The organizational support simply refers to the employee – employer relationship (Eisenberger et al., 1986). They include among others, the extent to which employees perceive their organizations are willing to provide them with special support, assistance, and equipment to complete their tasks and work assignments. POS refers to employees' perception concerning the extent to which the organization values their contribution and

cares about their well being. POS has been found to have important consequences on employee performance and well-being. Employees are likely to reciprocate positively in the work behaviors and attitudes when they perceive their management supports and values them (Eisenberger et al., 1986, Eisenberger Wong and Tay 427 et al., 1990). Howes et al. (2000) reveal that organizational support is related to the organizational commitment and turnover intention of employees.

Organizational support theory (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1995) holds that in order to meet socio-emotional needs and to assess the benefits of increased work effort, employees form a general perception concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being. Employees who are emotionally committed to the organization show heightened performance, reduced absenteeism, and a lessened likelihood of quitting their job (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Therefore, perceived organizational support can be considered as one of the determinant of organizational commitment and loyalty. Conversely, employees are more concerned with the organization's commitment to them. Social exchange theorists have mentioned briefly about employment as the trade of effort and loyalty for tangible benefits and social rewards (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Mowday et al., 1982; Organ & Konovsky, 1989). When one person treats another well, the reciprocity norm obliges the return of favorable treatment; as long as the employer and the employee apply this reciprocity norm to their relationship, the outcomes shall be beneficial to both. POS is also valued as assurance that aid will be available from the organization when it is needed to carry out one's job effectively and to deal with stressful situations (George, Reed, Ballard, Colin, & Fielding, 1993).

Greenberg (1990) identified that fairness of the ways used to determine the distribution of resources among employees is dealt by procedural justice. He has indicated equal distribution of resources as the tools for the motivating the employees which they perceive as organizational support for them. Shore and Shore (1995) too repeated same instances of fairness in decisions concerning resource distribution should have a strong cumulative effect on POS by indicating a concern for employees' welfare. While Kottke

& Sharafinski (1988) claim that perceives organizational support will be there if there is enough support from the supervisors. Employees, while forming global perceptions concerning their valuation by the organization, develop general views concerning the degree to which supervisors value their contributions and care about their well-being. Supervisors act as organizational agents, the employee's receipt of favorable treatment from a supervisor should contribute to POS. The strength of this relationship depends on the degree to which employees identify the supervisor with the organization, as opposed to viewing the supervisor's actions as idiosyncratic (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Shore & Shore (1995) stresses on organizational rewards and job conditions as the motivating factors POS. Human resources practices showing recognition of employee contributions will be positively related to POS. A variety of rewards and job conditions have been studied in relation to POS—for example, recognition, pay, promotions, job security, autonomy, role stressors, and training.

2.3.5 Job Promotion

Promotion is a way of rewarding the employees for meeting the organizational goals thus it serves as a mean of synchronizing organizational goals with personal goals (Lazear & Rosen, 1981). Promotion is said to be happened when an employee makes a shift in the upward direction in organizational hierarchy and moves to a place of greater responsibility (Dessler, 2008). Promotion follows a defined set pattern which is outlined in the employment bond (Doeringer & Piore, 1971). According to Rosen (1982) the deciding factor for the position of any individual in the hierarchy is his talent, higher the level of talent in any individual higher will be his position in the hierarchy. Similarly according to Carmichael (1983) promotion enhances the yield of an organization when an employee climbs a promotion ladder on the basis of his seniority and resultantly he gets an increased wage rate. However, Baker et al. (1988), claim that promotion does not consider being an incentive device, thus the optimal results cannot be generated by promoting the employee in the organization. There is a more failure rate when the employees are hired externally than when they are promoted internally (Kelly-Radford, 2001).

Murphy (1985) link concept of promotion with wages. Murphy (1985) Promotion has its importance due to the fact that it carries with it a significant change in the wage package of an employee. In similar study Baker et al., (1994) explained that raise in salary indicates the value of promotion (Promotion can help the competing firms to trace the most productive participant of one organization to be worth hiring for another organization Bernhardt & Scoones (1993). The impact of wage raise, a result of promotion, is found to be more significant than fixed income on job satisfaction (Clark & Oswald 1996). According to Shields and Ward (2001) the employees who are dissatisfied with the opportunity available for promotion show a greater intention to leave the organization. Pergamit and Veum (1989) established that greater the chances of promotion higher will be the job satisfaction of employees. Apart from job satisfaction, the employee satisfaction is determined by satisfaction with promotion. When employees perceive that there are golden chances for promotion they feel satisfied for the respective place in the organization De Souza, (2002).

Pergamit and Veum (1989) find a positive correlation between promotions and job satisfaction. Francesconi (2001) analyzes the effects of promotions on changes in job satisfaction using British household data. In another study using British household data, Clark (1996) includes a dummy variable indicating whether the respondent believes she has opportunities for promotion as an explanatory variable. In an organization incentives can be used as a promotion. It is a way of rewarding the employees for meeting the organizational goals thus it can serves a mean to achieve personal goals and with organizational goals (Lazear & Rosen, 1981). According to Rosen (1982) the deciding factor for the position of any individual in the hierarchy is his talent, higher the level of talent in any individual higher will be his position in the hierarchy. Promotion has its importance due to the fact that it carries with it a significant change in the wage package of an employee (Murphy, 1985). Thus, a raise in salary indicates the value of promotion (Baker et al., 1994). For promotion in an organisation an employee bond is prepared by employer and is signed by an employee at the time of employment with a defined set pattern (Doeringer & Piore, 1971). In this extremely competitive corporate world, promotion can be used as one of the tools for competing firms in tracing the most productive participant of one organization to be worth hiring for other different

organization (Bernhardt & Scoones, 1993). In such a way the promotion highlights an employee in the external environment and realizes his worth in the internal environment.

To get more challenging work and career development opportunities, employees require training and promotion within their organizations. Evidence shows that receipt of a promotion from current employer is associated with receipt of training and with job/work satisfaction (Pergamit & Veum, 1999). So although employers are reluctant to train, they promote those whom they have trained! And promotions that give employees more challenging work, increase job/work satisfaction, which in turn reduces turnover. Satisfied employees have been shown to have higher levels of attendance, cooperation, service quality, and creativity in seeking new work methods (Balzer, et al, 1997). Some companies use pay increases to signify promotion – that is they raise pay without changing the nature or duties of the job/work (Pergamit & Veum, 1999). Research has shown that if women (minorities) perceive a pay or promotion disparity, they are more likely than men (Caucasians) to look outside their current employer for a better job, rather than stay and “fight for a raise or promotion”(Wells, 2001).

2.3.6 Career Growth

Career is the unfolding sequence of a person’s work experiences over time (Arthur, Hall, & Lawrence, 1989). This definition insists on the relevance of time, rather than adopting any static view of work arrangements. Thus career growth is an outcome of a person’s career experiences. The employment context in which careers evolve is rapidly changing defines Arthur & Rousseau (1996). Career is the contemporary employment contexts call for careers to be more boundaries less. To reflect a ‘new deal’ that has the career actor more concerned with independent rather than organizational goals Cappelli (1999), and to involve the kind of ‘meta competencies’ that allow for easier mobility between successive employers Hall (2002). There is evidence that people who exhibit boundary less career behavior report considerably higher levels of career success Eby, Butts, & Lockwood (2003).

The career growth is the individual’s own sense of his or her career and what it is becoming Stebbins (1970). On the other hand there are objective careers, reflecting the

more or less publicly observable positions, situations, and status 'that serve as landmarks for gauging a person's movement through the social milieu' Barley, (1989) Career as a path implies a route which one is following, having a direction or a purpose that links the successive positions over time (Adamson et al., 1998). As managers are moving away from single employment settings, career paths are no longer unidirectional up the hierarchical ladder. It is no longer apparent how an overall career path can be logical and purposeful because career moves can be upwards, downwards, forwards, backwards, sideways or idiosyncratic (Baruch, 2004; Inkson, 2004). The multi-directional nature of a career path implies that the notion of internal career or the subjective sense of where one is going in work life (Schein, 1996) Chang (1999), individuals who seek career growth have higher expectations for career growth opportunities within their organizations. To the degree that individuals can meet their career growth needs within an organization, they are more likely to remain with that organization. Failure to meet these expectations would lead these individuals to seek employment opportunities elsewhere

Meyer et al. (1993) people who work in organizations that enable them to satisfy their needs develop a stronger positive emotion toward those organizations which results in greater psychological attachment to those organizations. Indeed, research has borne out a positive relationship between career growth practices and organizational commitment (Chang, 1999; Weng et al., 2010). Conversely, organizations that fail to provide career need satisfaction opportunities make the prospects of employment elsewhere more attractive. Salamin and Hom (2005) people who perceive little progress toward meeting their career goals or few opportunities for professional ability development in their current jobs and/or who feel under rewarded by the organization in terms of promotional opportunities or compensation, have little to lose by leaving that organization.

2.3.7 Work stress

'Stress arises when individuals perceive that they cannot adequately cope with the demands being made on them or with threats to their well-being' Lazarus, Psychological Stress and the Coping Process (1966). In this definition the only factor demand and its consequences is taken as the cause for stress on employees. The inability to adjust the unnecessary demand leads to the stress situation to the employees. Stress can only be

sensibly defined as a perceptual phenomenon arising from a comparison between the demand on the person and his or her ability to cope. An imbalance in this mechanism, when coping is important, gives rise to the experience of stress, and to the stress response Cox, Stress, 1978. Stress results from an imbalance between demands and resources' Lazarus & Folkman, Stress, Appraisal and Coping, 1984.

The Health and Safety Executive (HSE) defines stress as an 'adverse reaction people have to excessive pressures or other types of demand placed on them'. Work-related stress is thus understood to occur when there is a mismatch between the demands of the job and the resources and capabilities of the individual worker to meet those demands. This definition emphasizes the relationship between individuals and their working environment, and helps to explain why a situation that one person regards as a stimulating challenge causes another to experience a damaging degree of stress. The success depends on a long-term and dedicated commitment on the part of the organization, according to Dr. Michael Baime, professor of Stress Management. "If changes are to be made to reduce costly stress in the workplace, employers must truly value the health as well as the productivity of their workers," he says. "Additionally, the strategy must be a dual approach of organizational changes and encouraging individuals to learn to manage their stress, no matter what the source."

A 2007 Euro-found report on work-related stress; Stress occurs in many different circumstances, but is particularly strong when a person's ability to control the demands of work is threatened. Insecurity about successful performance and fear of negative consequences resulting from performance failure may evoke powerful negative emotions of anxiety, anger and irritation. The stressful experience is intensified if no help is available from colleagues or supervisors at work. Therefore, social isolation and lack of cooperation increase the risk of prolonged stress at work. Conversely, work tasks with a high degree of personal control and skill variety, and a work environment with supportive social relationships; contribute to workers' wellbeing and health.

A report by the National Association of Mental Health confirms that the individual worker's 'personality and coping strategy' can have direct, moderating or perceptual effects on stress outcomes. For example, an extroverted person might find a socially

isolating job more stressful than an introverted person, who conversely, might find a job with greater levels of social interaction more difficult and stressful.

HSE has identified six categories of potential work stress:

Demands: working conditions, shift work, long or unsociable hours, workload.

Control: job autonomy; low levels of job control

Relationships: with superiors, subordinates and colleagues

Change: introduced, managed and communicated to staff

Role: unclear role understanding, role conflict, roles ambiguity

Support: support and job training, encouragement, sponsorship and resources

Like HSE's explanation NIOSH Director Linda Rosenstock has explained stress in the similar dimensions. Work stress imposes enormous and far-reaching costs on workers wellbeing and corporate profitability. Research and experience tell that certain factors, such as a heavy workload, conflicting or uncertain job responsibilities and job insecurity are stressors across organizations and that the risk for job stress can be reduced through smart, strategic action. All the above stresses occur in the working settings. Until and unless these kinds of stresses are absent within an organization the question of quitting job is very low.

2.3.8 Company Reputation

Company reputation is 'a perceptual representation of a company's past actions and future prospects that describe the firm's appeal to all of its key constituents' Fombrun (1996). Company reputation is a psychological factor that comes from inner state of mind regarding the company from the angle of its stakeholders. Fombrun further explain it is a collective and multidimensional construct which is an aggregated perception of many individuals to the organization. Therefore, an organization does not have a single reputation – it has many. From the research conducted by Fombrun and his team found,

‘image’ is distinguished as the outsider’s perception, whereas reputation includes both internal and external stakeholders.

The corporate reputation is accumulated perception of the single stakeholder; the relational school sees reputation as an equal reflection of the internal and external view of the organization (e.g. Davies and Miles 1998; Hatch and Schultz 2001). This school emphasizes differences between the views of different stakeholders but also contains the idea that internal and external views are linked. Likewise Hatch and Schultz (1997) contributed to the conceptual background of the ‘relational school’ by linking image, identity and culture. They mean to say that company reputation is all about the combo of factors like image, status, identity etc. Davies and Miles (1998) saw reputation management as the alignment between three elements, ‘how others (the customers) see ourselves’, ‘who we really are’ and ‘what we say we are’.. In a case where stakeholders have differing views of the same company, an unfavorable reputation might contaminate a favorable reputation (Carter and Deephouse 1999). Any ‘relational differences’ (Hatch and Shultz 2000) or ‘gaps’ (Davies and Miles 1998; Dowling 1994; Hatch and Shultz 2001) between the external and internal views has been seen as crucial in reputation management.

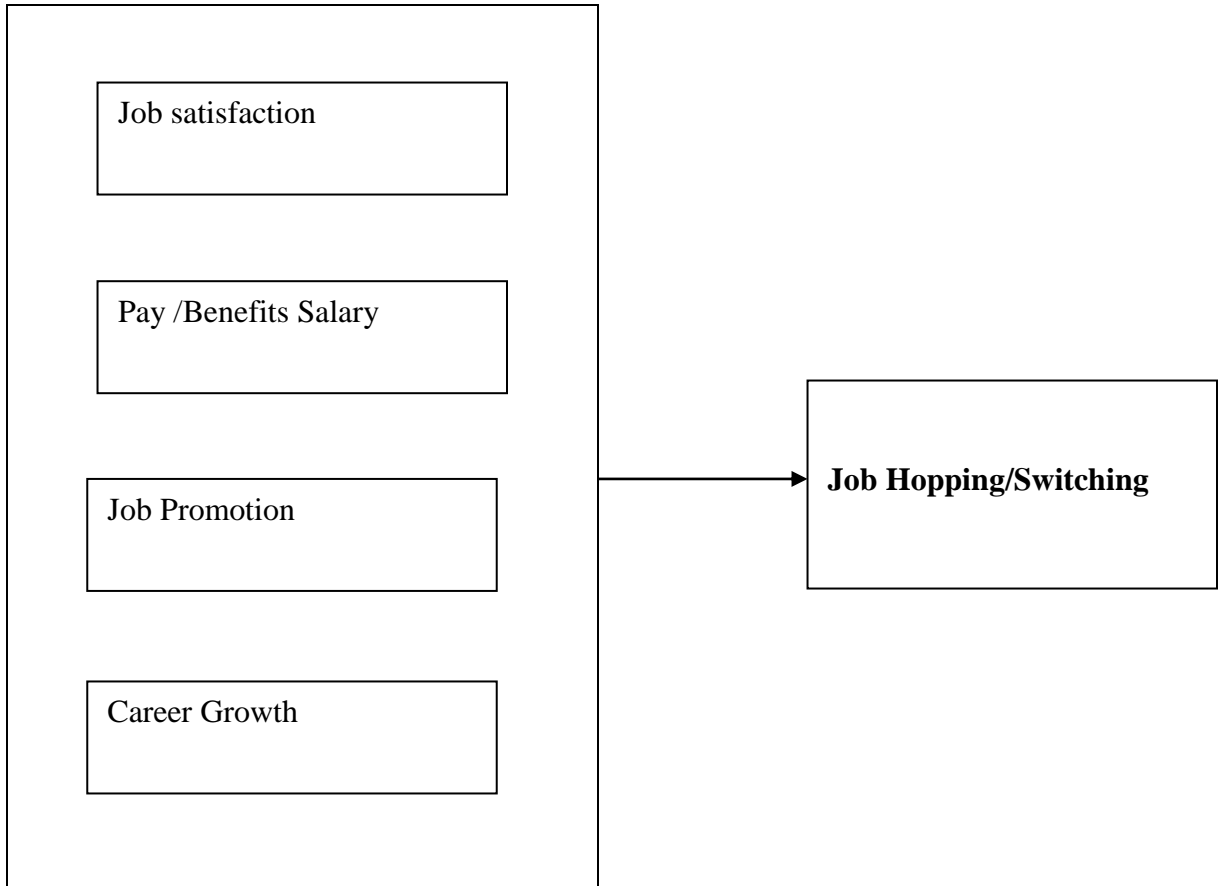
The reputation of an organization was conveyed to outsiders by managers in the organization. It is now widely accepted that corporate reputations start from the inside out (Martin, 2009a, 2009b). Chun (2005) reputation was seen as an intangible asset having financial worth, as traits or signals that influence perceptions of the organization by external stakeholders, as perceived by customers and clients, as perceptions of the organization held by internal stakeholders (employees), and as an overall perception of an organization’s performance relative to societal expectations and norms. Perceptions of corporate reputation can be internal (employees, managers), external (customers, shareholders), or both. And different stakeholders can have different perceptions of company reputation. Mangold and Miles (2007) focus on internal corporate reputation. This reputation is the extent to which employees know and understand the organization’s mission, values and desired brand image and the degree to which their psychological contract is being fulfilled. Whatever the author have said in their definition/research, in

conclusion company reputation is all about the favorable perception of internal and external member of the organization.

Thus if the employees has the positive perception towards the organization then the chances of their retention to the organization will be very high or in other sense the chances of job switching will be very low. The employees always want to be the corporate member of that organization that is highly renowned and appraised by others comparatively than other competitors. In other sense people like to engage in the branded company that has distinct identity and image in the market. Thus from all above inferences it can be predict that there will be the positive relationship between the corporate/company image and reputation.

2.4 Theoretical Framework

Independent Variables



Source: Adopted from Wong and Tay.

Figure 2.1: Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework given in Figure 2.1 outlines the relationship between Job Hopping and factors impacting the job hopping behaviors of Nepalese bankers. Job Hopping/ Switching behaviors is taken as the dependent variable whereas the factors affecting job hopping are independent variables that influences the Job switching behaviors of people working in banking sectors of Nepal.

The independent variables derived from the study of different literatures are as below:

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the level of contentment a person feels regarding their job. It has to do with the way how people feel about their job and its various aspects. In other words job satisfaction represents a combination of positive or negative feelings that workers have towards their work. So the person's hopes, desires, and expectations about the employment he/she will influence to leave or to remain with job they are involved

Pay/Benefits

Pay consists of wages and salaries received for performing work. Simply it is money or financial return given to employees for their contribution to the organization. It can be base pay and merit pay Benefits are addition to pay like pay for time not worked, protection programs, executives' benefits etc. Employees receive them as a result of their employment and position in the organization. Pay/benefits too play role in influencing the job hooping behaviors of employees.

Work Stress

Occupational stress is stress involving work. Occupational stress can occur when there is a discrepancy between the demands of the environment/workplace and an individual's ability to carry out and complete these demands. People might go for switching their job they feel workplace stress such as negative workload, isolation, extensive hours worked, toxic work environments, lack of autonomy, difficult relationships among coworkers and management, management bullying, harassment and lack of opportunities or motivation to advancement in one's skill level etc.

Employee Promotion

The advancement of an employee within a company position or job tasks. Job promotions usually include a new job title, a greater number of responsibilities and a pay increase. They might also include an expansion of benefits and managerial authority over other employees. Job promotions are usually based on performance or tenure.

Career Growth

Career growth" or "Job advancement" is a change from an entry level position to a job which has more duties and that receives more compensation. Whenever there is a chance of being promoted to a position which has greater authority, more decision making, and the possibility of supervising other employees or work independence then job hopping activities might occur.

Similarly the dependent variable involved in the theoretical framework is discussed as below:

Job Hopping/Switching

Job hopping is a pattern of changing companies every year or two of one's own volition rather than as a result of something like a layoff or company closure. It is practice of changing jobs frequently, especially as a means of quick financial gain or career advancement. Job mobility decision is affected by the factors like job satisfaction, job promotion, pay/ benefits, work stress, company reputation and so on. Especially in Nepalese banking sectors these factors are most common leading to the bankers change their job frequently.

Chapter III

Research Design and Methodology

3.1 Research Plan and Design

The study has been conducted with the objective of investigating the job hopping behaviors of Nepalese bankers and determining the likely impacts of factors leading to the job hopping. Therefore the findings of the study would give the information regarding job hopping situation and its major determinants in the banking sector in Nepal. This chapter describes the sampling process, sample characteristics, instrument development, content reliability, pre-test, statistical analysis plan, data and overall methodology undertaken for the purpose of this research.

The survey was conducted by taking the responses from the bankers working in different banks through questionnaire method. Related secondary data is collected and analyzed from literature and previous research to verify the hypotheses. Self-administered questionnaire were distributed to the respondents to obtain primary data. The research study was quantitative study. It investigates the impact of factors affecting on job hopping/switching. Thus the goal of this study was to examine the relationship between job hopping and its determinants in the banking sectors of Nepal.

3.2 Type of Study

The nature of this study was descriptive study. The hypothesis testing explains the relationship between job hopping and its determinants. This study was conducted through a survey with structured questionnaire because questionnaire is an efficient data collection mechanism.

This study used various statistical tests such as correlation, regression, mean, standard deviation and etc. The software called Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) and Microsoft Excel was used to analyze and interpret the quantitative data, this software is

commonly used by researchers and easily available in business settings. The reliability of scales is analyzed using Cronbach's alpha since Cronbach's alpha test is best used for multipoint-scale items and it is also the most popular test for inter-item consistency reliability (Cavana, Delahaye & Sekaran, 2003).

3.3 Sample Description

3.3.1 Population

All Nepalese bank employees were considered as the total population. The research studies the Job switching behavior of the people from commercial bank of Nepal. Therefore, the population of the study is the bankers from the major banks like Standard Chartered, Nabil, Nepal Investment, KIST, Sanima, Janata bank etc.

3.3.2 Sample Size

The population was specifically defined. It consisted of those people working at commercial banks of Nepal. The total sample size taken for the study was 105 respondents. This sample includes executives and non-executives of the Nepalese commercial banks. For data collection one the non probabilistic sampling techniques; convenience sampling has been used. Convenience sampling was appropriate for this research because this technique is best way to reach to the respondents; similarly due to the resource constraint- time and money. This sampling technique generally assumes a homogeneous population that means the members of the population poses similar characteristics. This sample of the study represents the whole population of the study.

3.4 Sources of Data

3.4.1 Primary Sources

In order to collect reliable and valid information, relevant questionnaires were prepared and distributed among the respondents who worked in different banks in Nepal.

Especially, the targeted respondents were those who have worked more than one organization/bank.

3.4.2 Secondary Data Sources

This study also has used several secondary data while collecting required information. The sources of the secondary data include books, literatures, data from government and non-governmental sources, internet search, articles, and journals and so on. This has helped identify how others have defined and measured key concepts, their findings and the data sources they have used. Use of these sources has also helped to discover the relevant information and also revealed how this research project is related to other studies.

3.5 Pilot Study

Small pilot study was conducted using the survey questionnaires over a selected group of 10 respondents from 3 commercial banks before conducting the major survey over the sample population. Most of the set questionnaires were on multiple choice forms which were modified to Likert scale form after the pilot study for the more accurate result and convenient of the respondents. Likewise some unnecessary questionnaires were removed completely from the set and some were amended using the simplified and concrete words to avoid confusion after the pilot study. And finally the questionnaires were kept in orders as per the dependent and independent variables.

3.6 Data Collection Instrument

Questionnaires were used as data collection instrument. A close end questionnaire was developed with 5- item questionnaire was used to study job hopping (dependent variable) and 27- item questionnaire was used to study determinants of job hopping (independent variable). The questions were designed to make the purpose of the study successful after the results have been ascertained. This questionnaire was designed in such a way that it would give expected information according to the research topic.

3.7 Administration of Instruments

The questionnaires were distributed to the respondents through e-mails and the printed sets where applicable. The printed sets distributed to some respondents were collected after it has been fulfilled. The purpose of the study was properly defined to every respondent on the questionnaire page so that the respondents would understand why this research was being done. This also avoided any suspicion, biases and motivated them to provide their independent opinions on the questions asked. Moreover, to have valid and reliable data, questions were well formulated considering the easiness and understandability and avoiding any vague and double meaning words so that the respondent could easily answer the given questions without any confusion and help minimize any error. Furthermore the questionnaire is divided into mainly two parts. The first part contains demographic profile. This is collected for statistical use, to prepare respondents' profile. The next part contains the questions which were used to measure dependent and independent variables. The parts of questionnaire are illustrated in the table as below:

Part	Content
Part A	Demographic Profile
Part B	Job satisfaction, Pay/ benefits, Job promotion and Career growth

Table 3.1 Questionnaire Design

3.8 Measurement

The personal demographic questions were asked to the respondents to prepare the respondents' profile. The job switching behaviors was assessed with four dimensions. There were 5 items for job switching and 27 items for purchase decision. All questions related to independent variables were evaluated on a five- point Likert scale. But for job switching related questions are in both Likert scale and multiple choice question form.

3.9 Validity and Reliability

Reliability means the consistency between measurements in a series. For establishing reliability of the study, the questionnaire was developed carefully along with use of correct word and meaning. A pilot study was conducted for pre-test among certain number of respondents to detect any kind of misunderstanding in the question. Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was also calculated to identify the reliability of the instruments used. After the data collection from the respondents Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was also calculated to identify the reliability of the instruments used.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	No. of Items
.929	29

Table 3.2 Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients

Reliability statistics is typically associated with internal consistency and its value ranges from 0 to 1. Sekaran (2000) stated that Cronbach's Alpha coefficient less than 0.6 are considered poor, greater than 0.6 but less than 0.8 are considered acceptable and greater than 0.8 are considered good. Table 3.2 shows the Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the questionnaire asked to respondents, which is above 0.8, which means the reliability of the instrument used is good.

Similarly, for establishing the validity, the questionnaire was prepared under the guidance of an expert who oversaw the questionnaire making process and helped the researcher to come with a standard set of questions in such a way that items on questionnaire cover the full range issues relevant to the phenomenon that researcher is studying.

3.10 Data Analysis

The collected data has been statistically analyzed using software such as the Statistical Package Social Sciences Software (SPSS) and Microsoft Excel were used. SPSS is analytical and scientific software used to organize the data, determine significant relationships and identify difference, similarities with and between different categories of respondents. For this research purpose descriptive statistics, reliability analysis,

correlation analysis and regression analysis were performed in order to accomplish the objectives of the study. The data analysis included the following:

- The establishment of Cronbach's Alpha for the reliability of the instrument used
- Demographic Profile of Respondent
- The frequency distribution for several of the measures
- Measures of Central Tendency and Dispersion
- Pearson Correlation Hypothesis testing

Chapter IV

Results and Discussion

The purpose of this chapter is to analyze and interpret the data collected during the study and present the results of the questionnaire survey. The main objective of this research study is expected to be fulfilled with the outcomes derived from the analysis of the data. This chapter also covers the test of hypotheses which were formulated in the previous chapter. This section is further sub-divided into two section sub-sections. The first part deals with the respondents' profile. It gives demographic information about the respondents such as gender, marital status, age, academic qualification and job designation etc. The second part analyzes and interprets the collected data through correlation of dependent and independent variables. And the final part is the discussion of the results obtained through analysis.

4.1 Respondents' Profile

This section deals with the demographic analysis and interpretation of primary data collected through questionnaires. This helps to get insight into the demographic characteristics of the respondents under study. The respondents' profile includes gender, marital status, educational qualification, age-group, and job position. Out of the 115 questionnaire send to the potential respondents only 105 respondents give their response to the questionnaire. Hence, the response rate was ninety one percent. All the respondents were the bankers working the commercial bank inside the Kathmandu Valley.

4.1.1 Gender of Respondents

Gender	No. of Respondents	Percent (%)
Male	57	54.3
Female	48	45.7
Total	105	100

Table 4.1: Gender of Respondents

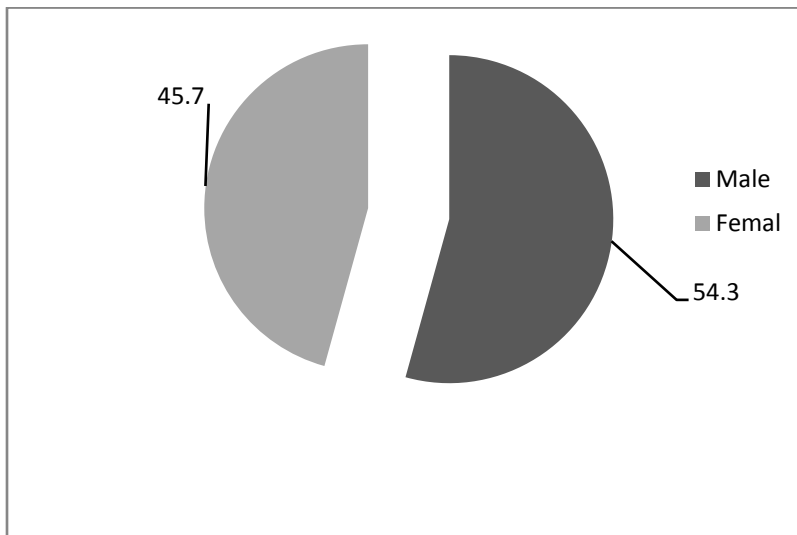


Figure 4.1: Gender of Respondents

Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1 show the gender distribution of the respondents. The number of male respondents was 57 and that of female respondents 48. The percentage of male respondent was 54.3% and that of female respondent was 45.7%. The aim of the research was to make the sample size equal but the independent selection brought out slight difference in the number of male and female respondents.

4.1.2 Marital Status

Marital Status	No. of Respondents	Percent (%)
Unmarried	72	68.6
Married	33	31.4
Total	105	100

Figure 4.2: Marital Status of Respondents

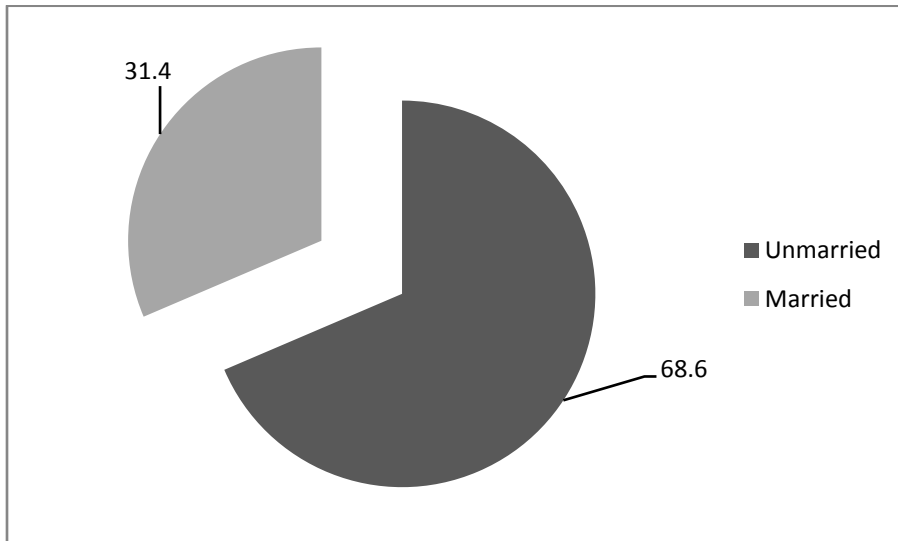


Table 4.2: Marital Status of Respondents

Table 4.2 and Figure 4.2 show the marital status of the respondents. It has been found that the number of unmarried respondents is greater than that of married respondents. Unmarried respondents are 72 in number which represents 68.6% and married respondents are 33 in number that represents 31.4% of total respondents.

4.1.3 Age group of Respondents

Age Group	No. of respondents
Below 25	19
25-35	82
35-45	3
45-55	1
Total	105

Table 4.3: Age group of Respondents

Table 4.3 and Figure 4.3 show the age group of the respondents, where majority of them represented 25-35 years age group. Out of total respondents 82 represents this age group. Similarly, 19 respondents were from below 25 years age group and 3 respondents represent 35-45 age group. While age group 45-55 represented by just 1 respondent. Higher number of respondents represented from 25-35 years age group shows that this age is higher in number working in banks.

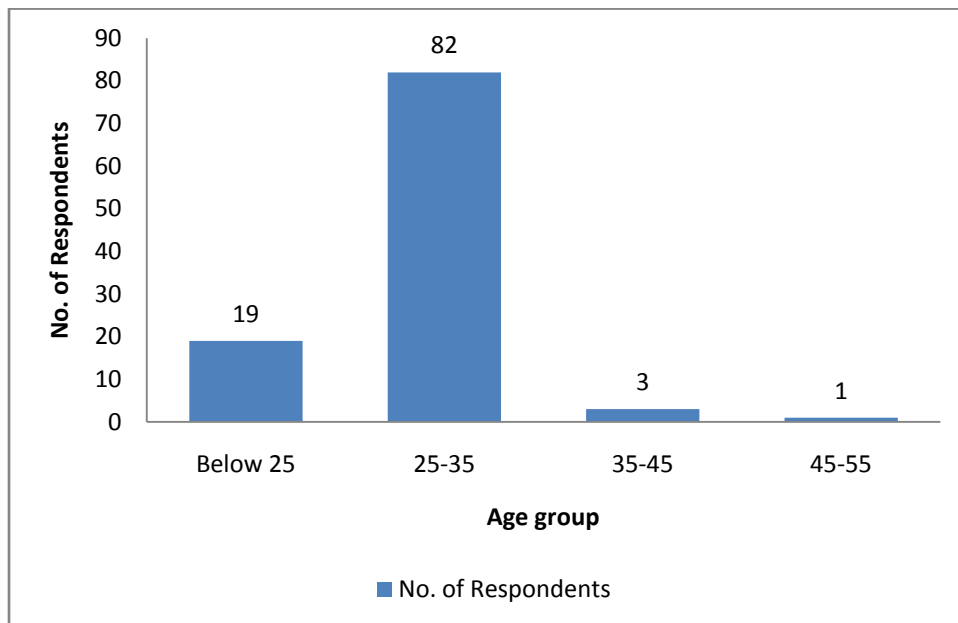


Figure 4.3: Age group of Respondents

4.1.4 Academic Qualification of Respondents

Qualifications	No. of Respondents
Intermediate	4
Bachelor	48
Masters	52
Ph.D	0
Others	1
Total	105

Figure 4.4: Academic qualifications of the respondents

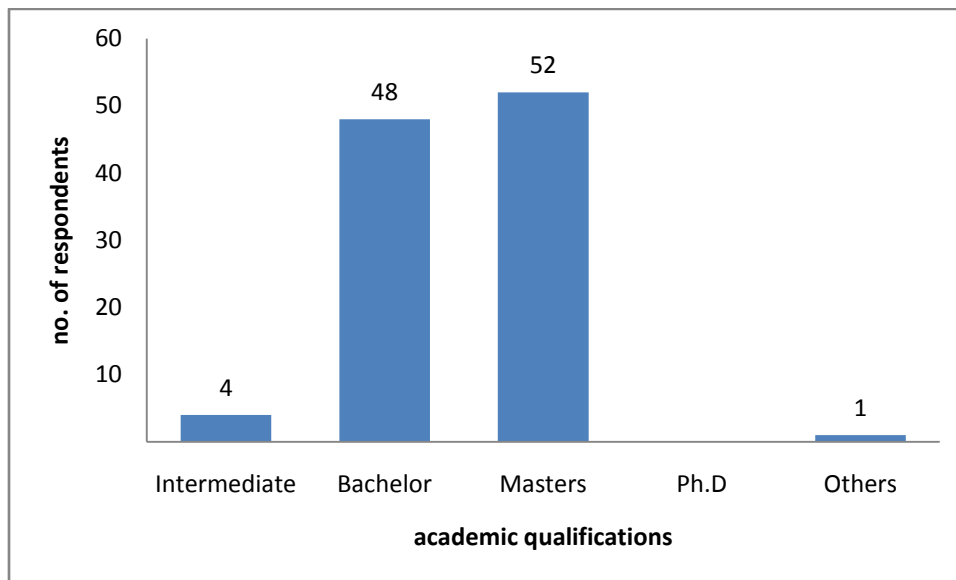


Figure 4.4 Academic Qualifications of Respondents

Table 4.4 and Figure 4.4 show the educational qualification of the respondents. Majority of the respondents falls within the master's level category that is 52 respondents and then 48 respondents are in bachelor's level category. In intermediate level 4 respondents comes under. None of the respondents belongs to Ph. D level and one of the respondents has done CA.

4.1.5 Job Designation

Job Designation	No. of Respondents	Percent
Executive	15	14.3
Non-executive	90	85.7
Total	105	100

Figure 4.5: Job Designations of Respondents

Table 4.5 and Figure 4.5 show job designation of the respondents. The respondents with non executive job designation represent 85.7% and the respondents with executive job position represent only 14.3% of the total sample of 105 respondents.

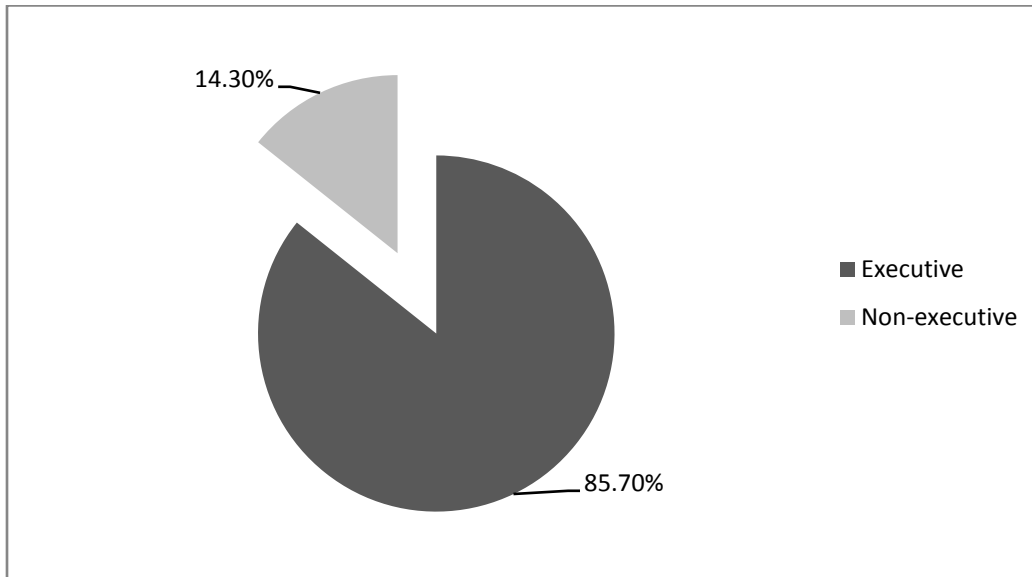


Figure 4.5: Job Designation of Respondents

4.1.6 Job Tenure

Job Time	No. of Respondents
Below 1 year	18
1-2 year	21
2-3 year	25
3 & above	41
Total	105

Table 4.6: Job Tenure of the respondents

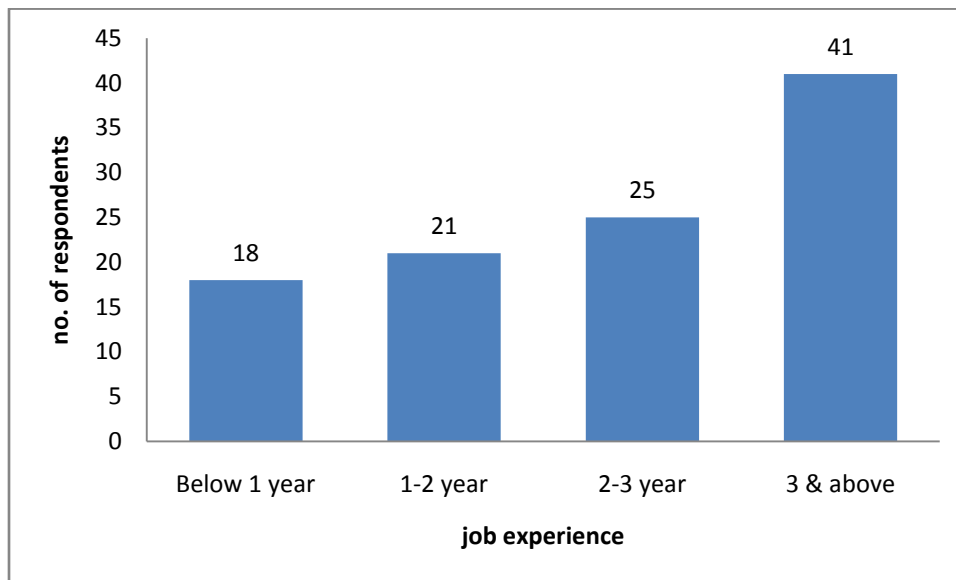


Figure 4.6: Job Tenure of the respondents

Table 4.6 and Figure 4.6 show the job tenure of the respondents. This question represents the how much time the respondents have spent in their respective banks. Out of 105 respondents majority i.e. 41 of them responded that they have spent 3 and above years in their bank and in 25 respondents said that they have work for 2-3 years in their respective organization. Similarly 21 respondents work for 1-2 years and remaining 18 has worked below 1 year to their current bank.

4.1.7 Job Hopping as Personal Choice

Job Hopping (Personal Choice)	No. of Respondents	Percent
Yes	95	89.5%
No	10	9.5%
Total	105	100

Table 4.7: Job hopping as personal choice

Table 4.7 and Figure 4.7 explicit the responses of the bankers to the question that is related to whether the job switching is their personal choice or not. 89.5 % of them claim that job switching is their personal choice whereas remaining 9.5 % said it is mandatory for them to change their job.

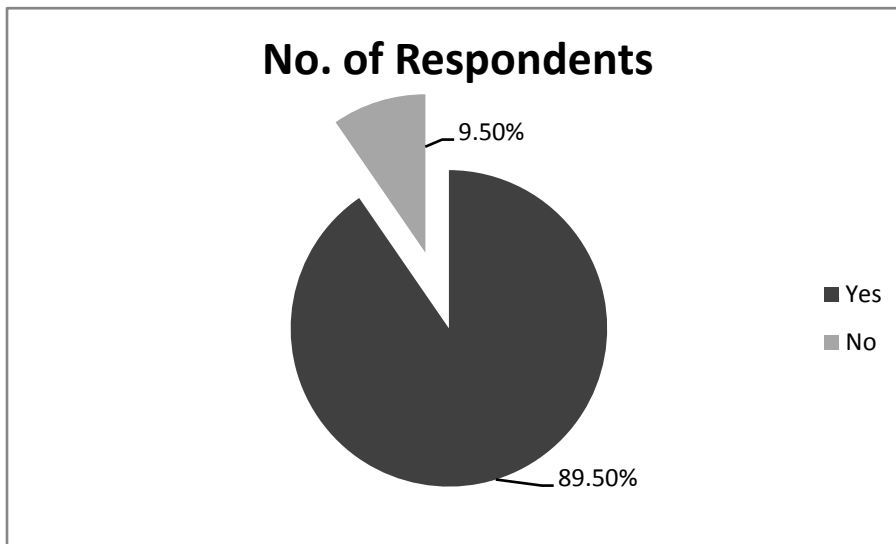


Figure 4.7: Job hopping as personal choice

4.1.8 Recruiters prefers to non job hoppers than frequent job switchers

Recruiters prefers to non job hoppers	No. of Respondents
Strongly Disagree	7
Disagree	24
Neither Disagree/Agree	26
Agree	37
Strongly Agree	11
Total	105

Table 4.8: Recruiters preference to non job switchers

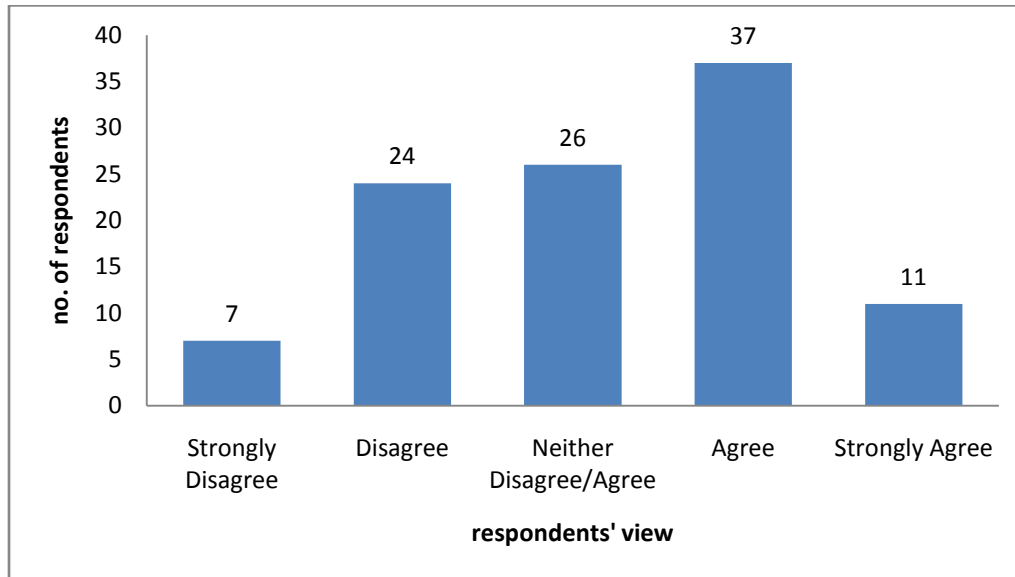


Figure 4.8: Recruiters preference to non job switchers

Table 4.8 and Figure 4.8 show the view of respondents regarding the recruiters hire those employees who stay longer time than those who are frequent job switchers. Among the 105 respondents, 37 of them responded that they were agreed with the statement. And 11 of them claim that they strongly support the statement. Whereas 24 of them disagree, 26 were neutral and 7 were strongly disagreed with the question.

4.1.9 Job as a common trend

Job hopping a common trend	No. of Respondents
Strongly Disagree	1
Disagree	8
Neither Disagree/Agree	11
Agree	62
Strongly Agree	23
Total	105

Table 4.9: Job hopping as common trend

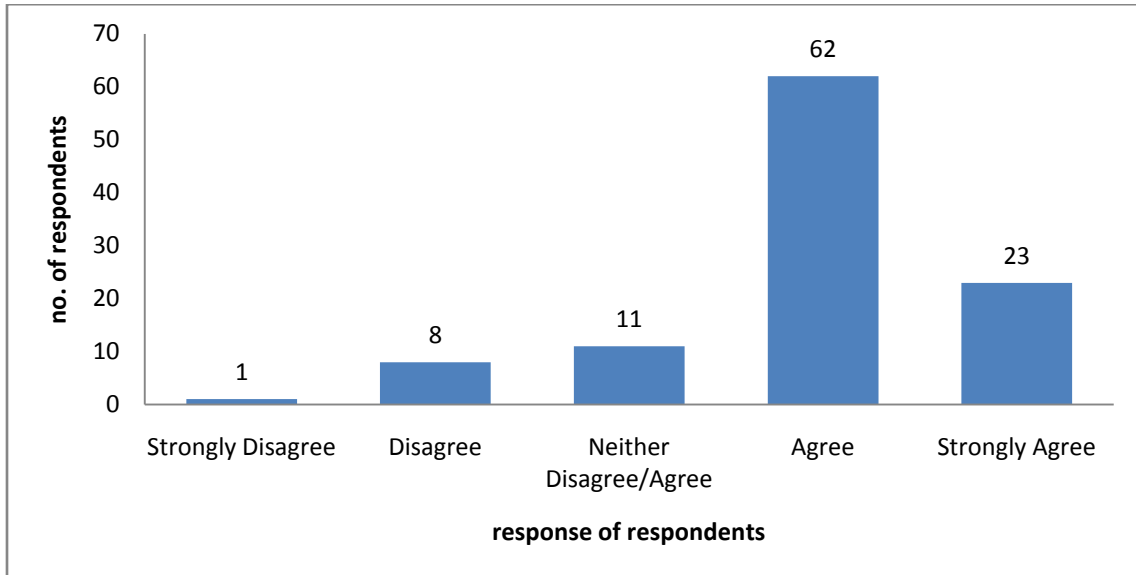


Figure 4.9: Job hopping as common trend

From Table 4.2 and Figure 4.2 it can be inferred that 62 respondents and 23 respondents agree and strongly agree with the statement that job hopping is common trend. While 8 respondents shared that they disagree and 1 of them strongly disagree the above question. However 11 bankers were in neutral side.

4.1.10 Job change within next two years

Job Change in next two years	No. of Respondents
Yes	66.70%
No	33.33%
Total	100

Table 4.10: Job switching within next two years

Table 4.1 shows the job switching intention of the respondents in coming two years. It shows that the 66.7% of the participant agreed that they will switch towards another banks in coming two years while remaining 33.33% said they will not move to new bank. The data is diagrammatically shown in the figure 4.10 using the Pie-Chart.

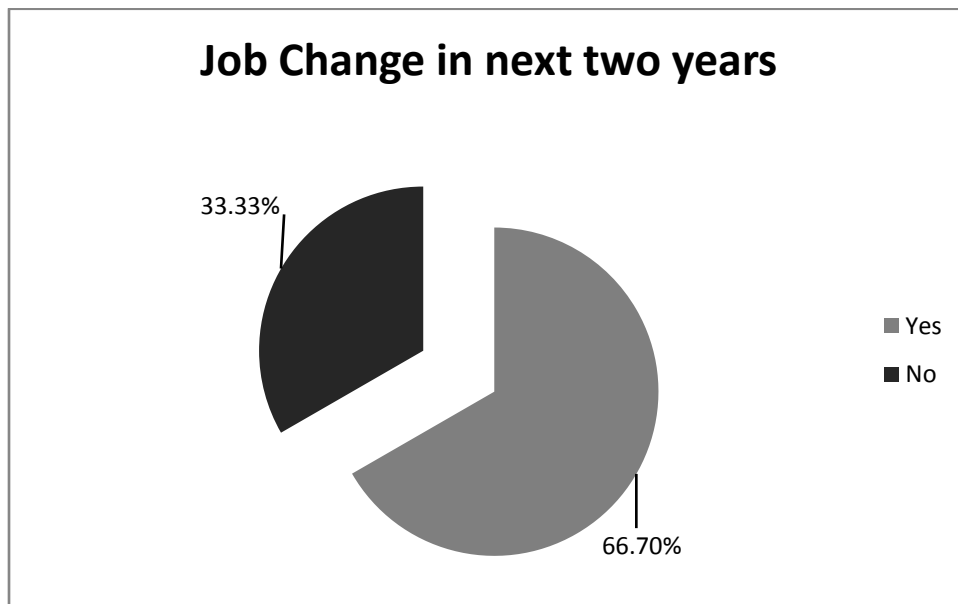


Figure 4.10: Job switching within next two years

4.2 Descriptive Analysis

This section deals with the descriptive analysis of the data collected through the questionnaires during the research process. Descriptive analysis incorporates calculation of statistical measures such as mean, standard deviation, including maximum and minimum values. These values help researcher to analyze the data with respect to

frequencies and aggregation relating to research questions and variables. For this purpose, five “Five Point Likert Scale” questions were asked to the respondents which scaled from 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (disagree), 3 (neutral), 4 (agree) to 5 (strongly agree). Number of respondents in each question item was 105.

Here job hopping has been measured through its four dimensions, job satisfaction, pay/salary, job promotion and career growth. Questions related to each dimensions and their descriptive statistic are shown below.

4.2.1 Descriptive study of job hoping factors

	Job Satisfaction	Salary/Pay	Job Promotion	Career Growth
Mean	2.48	2.58	2.79	2.11
Std. Deviation	1.153	1.072	.937	1.195
Minimum	1	1	1	1
Maximum	4	4	4	4

Table 4.11: Descriptive study of job switching factors

Table 4.11 shows the ranking given by the respondents to the factors leading job hopping. Rank was given on the basis of value of 1 for most important while 4 for least important factor. In the given Table 4.11, career growth has mean value of 2.11 which implies that career growth is highly important factors that lead to job switching among bankers. After career growth, there comes job satisfaction in second position with mean value of 2.48 so job satisfaction is another major factor after career growth responsible for job change. Similarly, salary/pay has mean value of 2.58 and job promotion has got 2.79, this shows job promotion is least important factors leading to job switching in banking sectors of Nepal. Hence, career growth is the most critical factor as it scored highest mean value of 2.11.

4.2.1.1 Frequency Analysis of job hoping factors

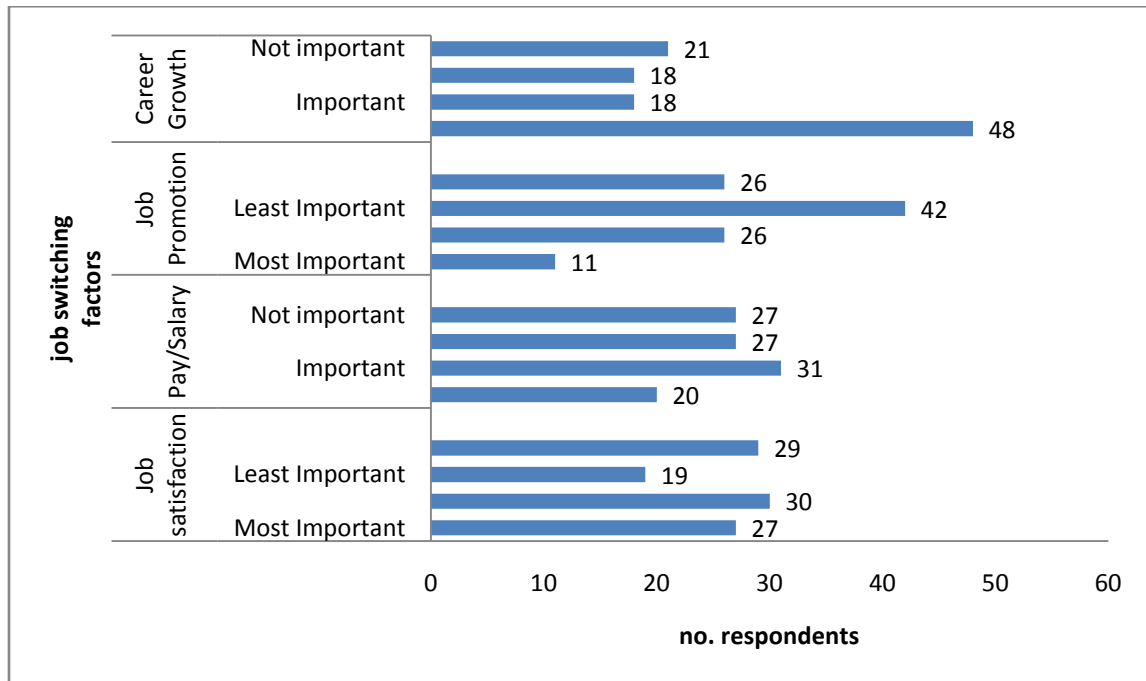


Figure 4.11: Frequency analysis of job switching factors

From Figure 4.11 it can be inferred that among the 105 respondents, 30 respondents said that job satisfaction is important factor for bankers to switch their job where as 19 of them claim that job satisfaction is least important for their job switching. In case of pay/salary, 31 respondents believed that it is important for their job switching where as 20 of them said that it's most important factors leading to their job change. While considering Job promotion 42 feels that it's least important for them but 11 of them said it's most important. On the other hand, 48 respondent claims that career growth is most important job switching factor while 18 of them find it just important for them to change their job.

4.2.2 Descriptive Analysis of Job satisfaction

	Less Interesting	Poor working condition	Less Communication	Less Information	Job Discrimination	Recognition	Less Supervisor Support	Job Security
Mean	2.95	3.02	2.84	3.13	3.36	2.84	3.30	2.81
Std. Dev	1.228	1.143	1.249	1.101	1.178	1.186	1.324	1.366
Min	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Max	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5

Table 4.12: Descriptive Analysis of Job satisfaction

Table 4.12 shows the descriptive statistics of job satisfaction factor of job switching. In the table, all the headings represent the sub factors related to the job satisfaction. The job security scored mean value of 2.81 which is the lowest among the other factors. This means one of the most reasons behind people being dissatisfied from their job is due to the less job security poses by their job. After less job security, there comes less recognition to contribution, less communication and less interesting work with mean score of 2.84, 2.84 and 2.95 respectively which are medium mean score among other factors. Likewise, the highest mean scoring of 3.63 was of discrimination at work so in this study most of the respondents put less emphasis on job discrimination at work for their job dissatisfaction. Thus, for employees to be dissatisfied with their job less job security poses main role whereby job discrimination plays least role.

4.2.2.1 Frequency analysis of Job satisfaction

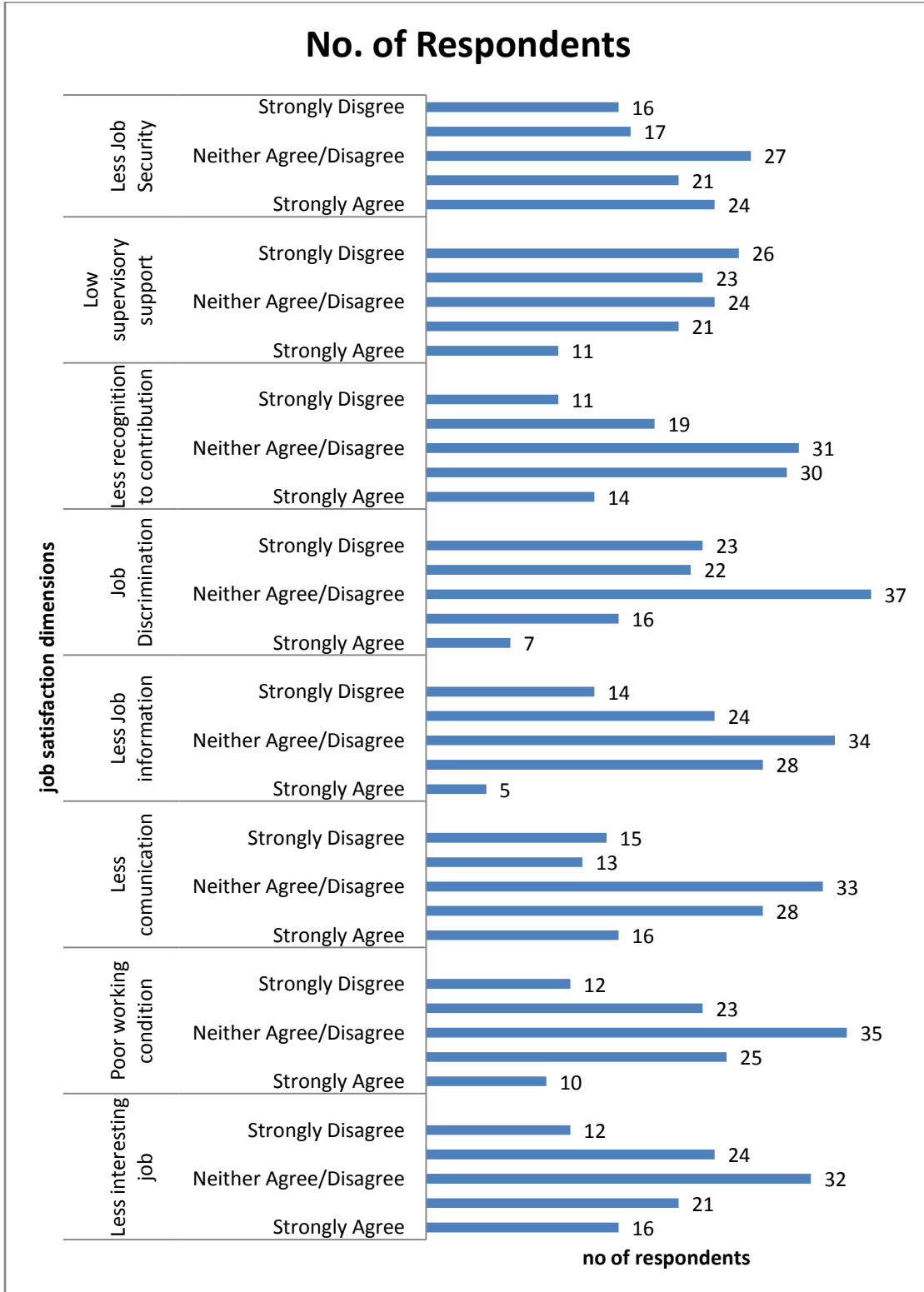


Figure 4.12: Frequency analysis of Job satisfaction

Figure 4.12 shows that, 32 respondents said that they will be neutral to the statement that less interesting job will make them dissatisfied with their job. Whereas just 12 respondents strongly disagreed that less interesting does not have negative impact on their job satisfaction level. At the same time 35 respondents too are neutral to the statement that poor working condition make them job dissatisfaction but for the same statement 10 of them strongly agreed. Similarly, majority of respondents remain in neutral point in case of the statement saying less communication, less job information, job discrimination, less job security and less recognition to contribution leading to job dissatisfaction. However, in case of less supervisory support 26 respondents claim that they strongly disagree that it leads to job dissatisfaction, but 11 people have opposite views that they accept that less supervisory support direct them towards job dissatisfactions.

4.2.3 Descriptive analysis of Pay/Salary

	Pay Satisfaction	Performance Basis	Pay Fairness	Allowances Inadequate	Pay Insecure	Pay Insufficient
Mean	2.67	2.76	2.94	2.88	3.02	2.82
Std. Deviation	1.320	1.311	1.392	1.246	1.352	1.343
Minimum	1	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum	5	5	5	5	5	5

Table 4.13 Descriptive analysis of Pay/Salary

In Table 4.14 different sub-factors of pay/benefits are shown. Among all, pay satisfaction scored the lowest mean value i.e. 2.67 meaning that respondents agreed that pay satisfaction is their major concern for job switching. After pay satisfaction, respondents prioritized performance basis pay, insufficient pay, inadequate allowances and pay fairness with mean score 2.76, 2.82, 2.88, 2.97 respectively. However pay insecure with mean value of 3.02 indicated that respondents' less prioritized, than the previous ones.

4.2.3.1 Frequency analysis of Pay/Salary

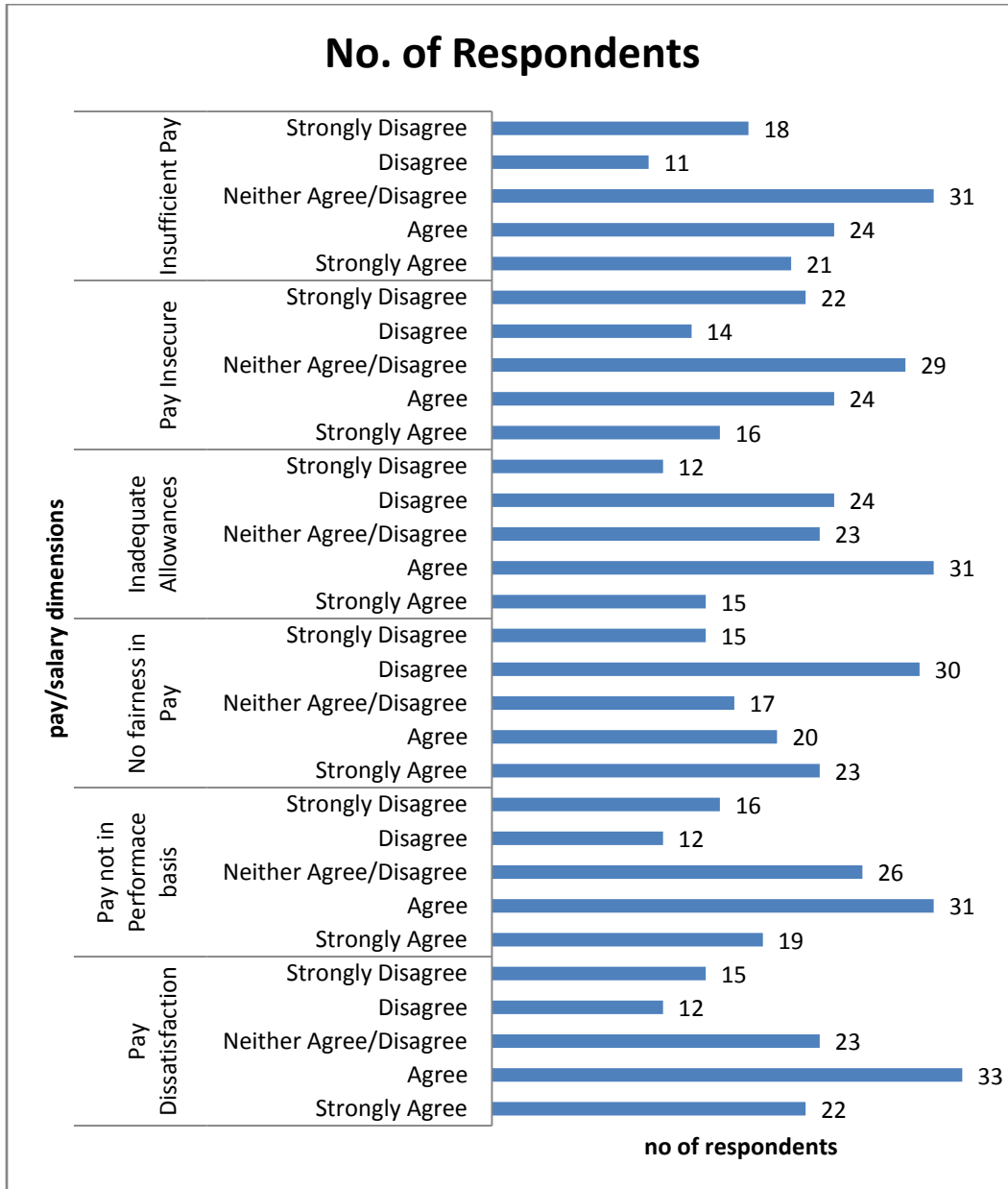


Figure 4.13: Frequency analysis of pay/salary.

As far as this question was concerned, 33 respondents agree that pay dissatisfaction does matter when it came to switching to another bank, but for the same question 12 believed that pay dissatisfaction does not matter for them to move new organization. When question asked regarding whether pay is not on the basis of performance, 31 respondents believed that pay should be there on the basis of performance whereas 12 respondents put

their opposed voice that pay is not necessarily important for them. Talking about pay fairness 30 respondents said pay fairness has nothing to do with job switching moreover other 15 respondents strongly did not agreed with the statement. In other hand 31 respondents agreed that inadequate allowances had led them to switch to new organization, however for the same 15 respondents responded that they inadequate allowances is not their prime reason for job mobility. For the question asked pay insecure and job switching, 29 respondents were stand on neutral point but 14 bankers did not agreed to the question. Likewise, 31 bankers said that they are in neutral position to the question that is insufficient pay had led them to come in new bank however there were 11 respondents who had a different opinion that they did not believe accept that insufficient par is cause for their job change.

4.2.3 Descriptive analysis of Job promotion

	Job Efficiency	Promotion Infrequent	Promotion Irregular	Less Promotion Opportunities	Promotion Fairness	Length of Services
Mean	2.66	2.61	2.71	2.72	2.91	2.90
Std. Deviation	1.270	1.221	1.261	1.348	1.241	1.383
Minimum	1	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum	5	5	5	5	5	5

Table 4.14: Descriptive analysis of Job promotion

Table 4.6 consists of sub-factors related to the Job promotion dimension. All the sub-factors scored mean value below 3 (mid-range value) which also implies that all sub-factors of job promotion plays role in job switching. Among the set of questions of this dimension, promotion infrequent scored the lowest mean value i.e. 2.61, meaning that respondents agreed that infrequent job promotion is valued by the respondents highly than others options. Similarly, promotion not on the basis of job efficiency scored mean value of 2.66 which indicates that promotion should be done on the basis of work efficiency to prevent from job mobility. Promotion irregular and less promotion scored

mean value of 2.71 and 2.72 respectively indicating they have moderate importance in impacting job hopping intentions of bankers. Finally promotion on the basis of length services and promotion fairness scored highest mean values that are 2.90 and 2.91 respectively this means both of these factors has got comparatively least impact than other factors on bankers to switch to new banks.

4.2.3.1 Frequency analysis of Job promotion

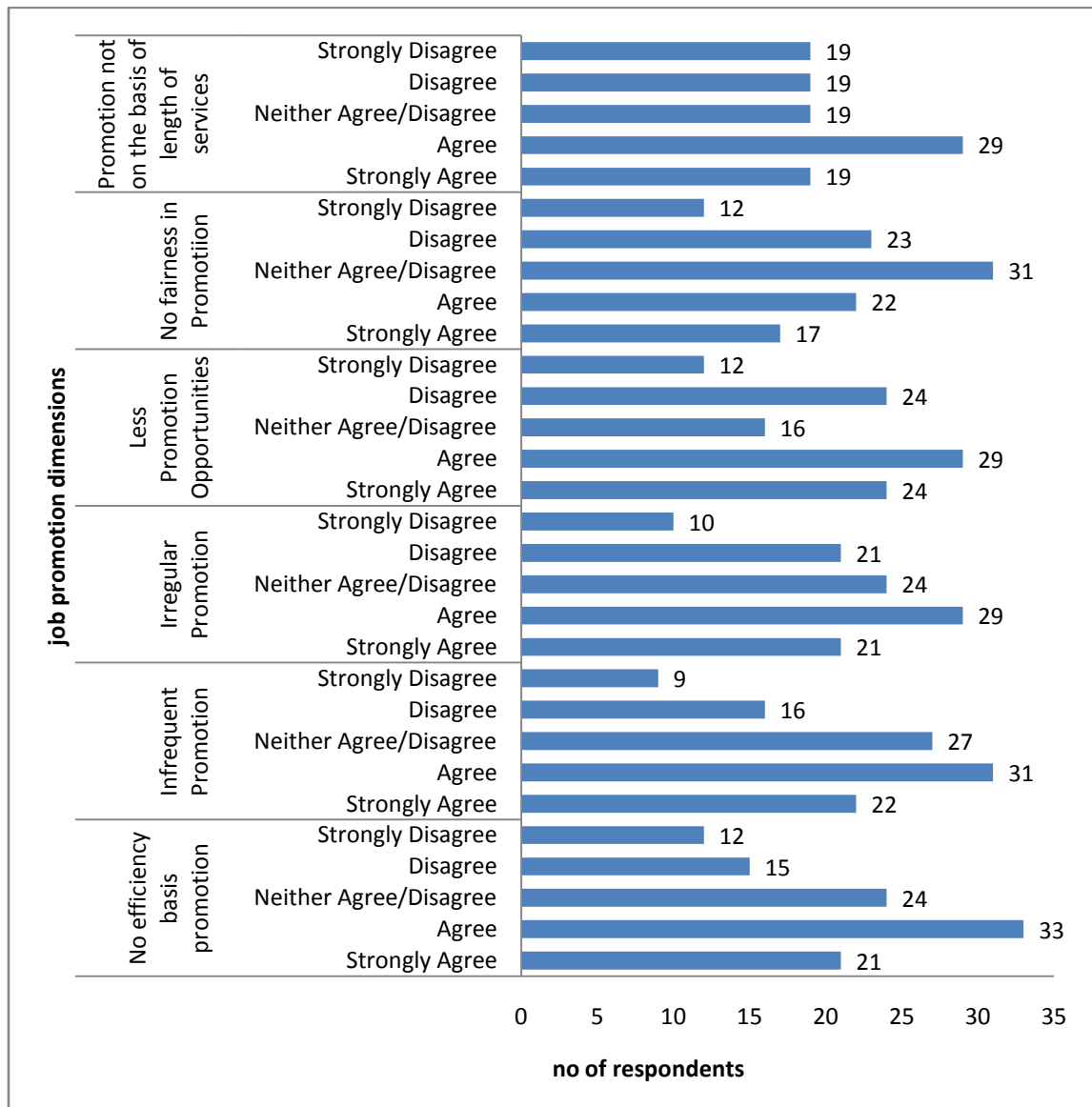


Figure 4.14: Frequency analysis of Job promotion

The Figure above shows that, 33 respondents agreed that they had switched their job because their promotion was not on the basis of their job efficiency however 12 respondents does not accepted that they had changed their job due to the reason mentioned above. In case of infrequent promotion 31 respondents agreed that the reason for changing their job is infrequent promotion in previous organization but interesting 9 respondents gave oppose reason that they strongly disagreed that they did not switched their job due to the infrequent promotion. At the same time 29 respondents agreed irregular promotion being one of the reason for their job switching whereas 10 respondents strongly disagreed to the same reason. 29 respondents agreed less promotion opportunities had led them to change their job but 12 bankers strongly disagree that less promotion was not reason for their job hopping. Likewise, 31 respondents said that neither they agree nor disagree that they have switch to new bank due to unfairness in promotion in the previous organization while respondents strongly disagreed that unfairness in promotion was not the reason for their job switching. 29 respondents said that they have changed their organization because their promotion was not on the basis of length of their services to the previous bank while 19 respondents

4.2.4 Descriptive analysis of Career growth

	Less secure career path	Less career development	Poor career prospect	Less support to career goals	Not suits to skills	Less chances to build networks of professional	No social Status
Mean	2.67	2.5	2.74	2.73	2.79	2.99	2.88
Std. Dev	1.306	1.161	1.264	1.179	1.253	1.252	1.313
Minimum	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum	5	5	5	5	5	5	5

Table 4.15: Descriptive analysis of Career growth

In Table 4.15 the sub-factors related to the career growth are shown. All the factors has got the mean value less than score 3 (mid-range value) which also implies that all these

factors plays role in impacting job switching behaviors of bankers. Among all factors less career development scored the least mean value i.e. 2.5 indicating that respondents agreed that career development opportunities is highly valued than other sub-factors. Similarly, less secured career path scored mean value of 2.67 meaning that less secured career path have impact on job hopping behaviors of bankers. Less support to career goals, poor career prospect and not suits to personal skills scored mean value of 2.73, 2.74 and 2.79 respectively that means all these factors has also impact upon job switching behaviors. Less social status and less professional networks has mean value 2.88 and 2.99 indicating they have least impact on job hopping intentions of bankers.

4.2.4.1 Frequency analysis of Career growth

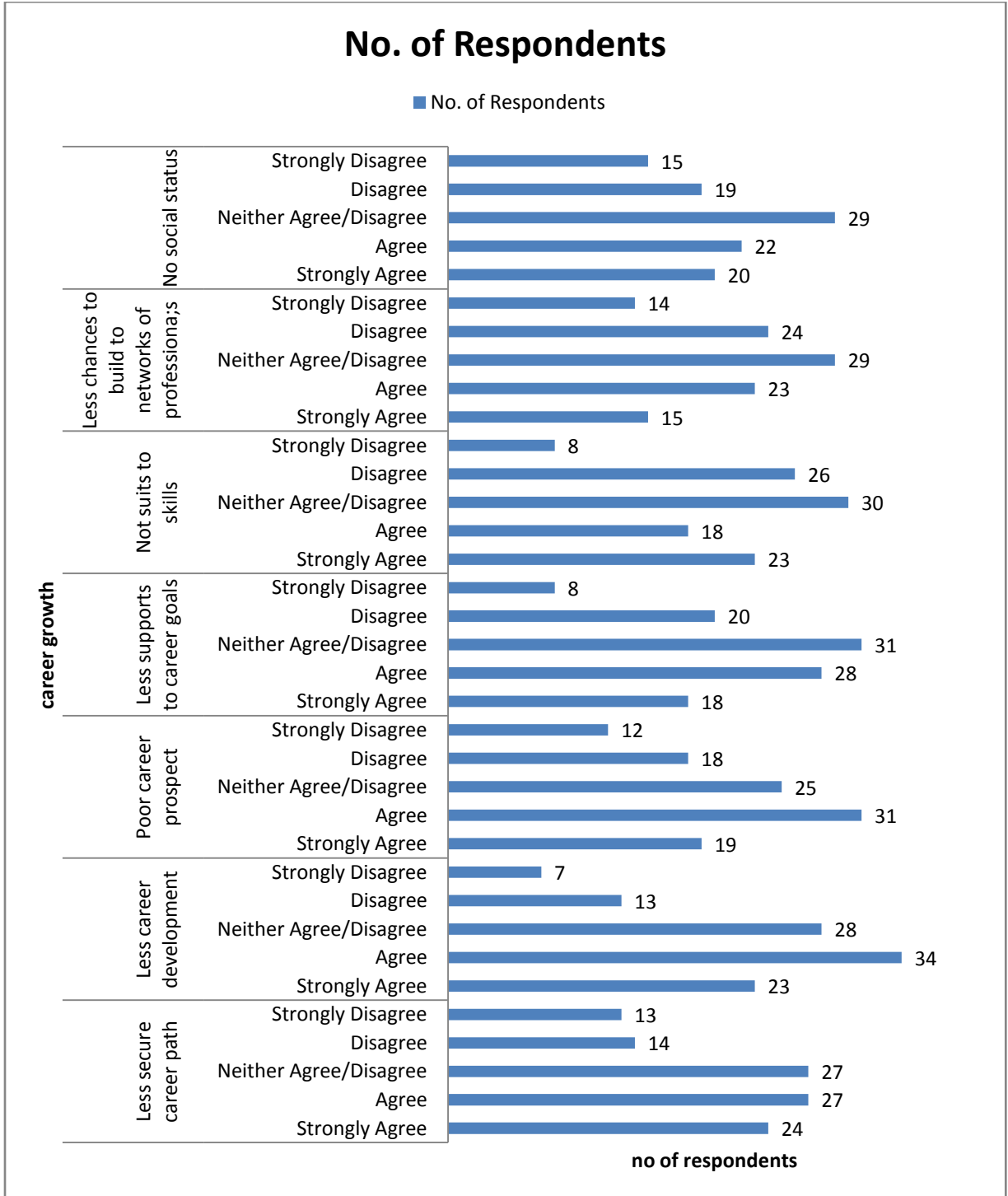


Figure 4.15: Frequency analysis of Career growth

The Figure 4.15 above shows that, 27 respondents agreed that they had switched their job because they had less secure career path in the previous bank and another 27 respondents responded that they are neutral regarding secure career path as reason for changing their job however 13 respondents strongly disagreed that secured career path has nothing to do with their job change. 34 respondents responded that they agreed that the reason for changing their job is less career development but interesting 7 respondents strongly disagreed that they did not switched their job due to the less career development in previous organization. In case of poor career prospect, 31 respondents said they agreed that they have changed their job due to poor career prospect but 12 bankers strongly disagreed that poor career prospect is not the reason for their job hopping. At the same time 31 respondents were in neutral position when asked whether they have switch to new organization due to less supports to career goals in previous organization however 8 respondents responded that they strongly not agree with the above reason. 30 respondents said neither they agree nor disagree to the question that they have change their bank due to their skills does not suits to the earlier organization whereas 8 bankers strongly unaccepted the same question. Likewise 29 bankers were also in neutral position when asked to them less professional networks being one of the reasons for their job switching whereas 14 respondents strongly disagreed to the same reason. Finally, 29 respondents too were also were in neutral position to the statement that they have switch to new bank due to the low social status of working in earlier organization but 15 organization disagree to the same question.

4.3 Hypothesis Test

This section deals with the analysis of possible relationships between prior formulated variables. For this purpose, the researcher tested hypotheses conducting correlation analysis between the job hopping and dimensions of job hopping using SPSS software.

4.3.1 Job satisfaction and Job switching

4.3.1.1 Hypothesis (H₀₁): There is no relationship between job satisfaction dimension and Job switching.

Correlations

		Overall Job hopping	Overall Job satisfaction
Overall Job satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	-.158	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.108	
	N	105	105

Table 4.16: Correlation between Job satisfaction and Job switching

Table 4.12 shows the correlation analysis between job satisfaction dimension and Job switching. Since the p value is more than alpha i.e. $0.108 > 0.10$, the correlation is insignificant between the variables. From this it can be understood that job satisfaction is not important for the bankers when changing their banks. Further, with the correlation coefficient value of -0.158, it can be said that there is negative relationship between job satisfaction dimension and job switching.

4.3.2 Job Pay/Salary and Job switching

4.3.2.1 Hypothesis (H₀₂): There is no relationship between pay/salary dimension and Job switching.

Correlation

		Overall Job Hopping	Overall Pay/Salary
Overall Pay/Salary	Pearson Correlation	-.059	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.551	
	N	104	104

Table 4.17: Correlation between Pay/Salary and Job switching

The correlation analysis between pay/salary dimension and job switching has been shown in table 4.16. Since the p value is more than alpha i.e. $0.551 > 0.10$, the correlation is insignificant between the variables, at 10% level of significant. Just like job satisfaction, the pay/salary does not have any influence in job switching intentions of the bankers. The correlation coefficient value of -0.59 suggest that that there is negative relationship between pay/salary dimension and job switching. Thus, hypothesis (H₀₂) is accepted at, 0.10 level of significance.

4.3.3 Job Promotion and Job switching

4.3.3.1 Hypothesis ($H0_3$): There is no relationship between job promotion dimension and Job switching.

Correlation

		Overall Job hopping	Overall Job Promotion
Overall Job Promotion	Pearson Correlation	-.185	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.058	
	N	105	105

Table 4.18: Correlation between job promotion dimension and Job switching

Table 4.17 shows the correlation analysis between job promotion dimension and job switching. Since the p value is less than alpha i.e. $0.058 < 0.10$, the correlation is significant between the variables, at 10% level of significant. Further, with the correlation coefficient value of -0.185, it can be said that there is negative relationship between promotion and job hopping. Therefore, hypothesis ($H0_3$) is rejected at, 0.10 level of significance.

4.3.4 Career growth and Job switching

4.3.4.1 Hypothesis ($H0_4$): There is no relationship between career growth dimension and Job switching.

Correlations

		Overall Job Hopping	Overall Career Growth
Overall Career Growth	Pearson Correlation	-.243*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013	
	N	105	105

Table 4.19: Correlation between Career growth dimension and Job switching

The correlation analysis between career growth dimension and job switching has been shown in Table 4.18. The p value is less than alpha i.e. $0.013 < 0.10$, that means the correlation is significant between the variables, at 10% level of significant. Further, with the correlation coefficient value of -0.243, it can be said that there is negative

relationship between promotion and job hopping. Therefore, hypothesis (HO4) is rejected at, 0.10 level of significance.

4.4 Major Findings of the Study

From the study of the literature discussed and the analysis of the data, the major findings have been present below.

- After the correlation analysis between job switching behavior and job satisfaction dimensions, it was found that the p value is higher than alpha i.e. $0.108 > 0.10$, so the correlation is insignificant between the job switching behavior and job satisfaction dimensions. Further, with the correlation coefficient value of -0.158 , it can be said that there is negative relationship between job satisfaction dimensions and job switching behavior of Nepalese bankers. Hence, it can be concluded that there is an insignificant relationship between job satisfaction dimensions and job switching behavior of Nepalese bankers
- After the correlation analysis between pay/salary and job switching behaviors of bankers, it was found that the p value is more than alpha i.e. $0.551 > 0.1$, so the correlation is insignificant between the between job satisfaction dimensions and job switching behavior. Further, with the correlation coefficient value of -0.059 , it can be said that there is negative relationship between job satisfaction dimensions and job switching behavior. Hence, there is insignificant relationship between job satisfaction dimensions and job switching behavior of Nepalese bankers.
- After the correlation analysis between job promotion and job switching behaviors of Nepalese bankers, it was found that the p value is less than alpha i.e. $0.058 < 0.01$, so the correlation is significant between job promotion and job switching behaviors. Further, with the correlation coefficient value of -0.185 , it can be said that there is negative relationship between job promotion and job switching behaviors. Therefore, there is significant relationship between job promotion and job switching behaviors of Nepalese bankers.

- After the correlation analysis between career growth and job switching behaviors of Nepalese bankers, it was found that the p value is lower than alpha i.e. $0.013 < 0.01$, so the correlation is significant between career growth and job switching behaviors. Further, with the correlation coefficient value of -0.243 , it can be said that there is negative relationship between career growth and job switching behaviors.

Thus, we can conclude that job satisfaction has higher correlation with the job switching behavior of bankers among all other dimensions of job switching behaviors.

Chapter V

Summary and conclusion

In the previous chapter, the data analysis and hypotheses testing were done according to the objectives of the study. This chapter gives a brief overview of the findings and conclusion of the study. This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section includes summary of the findings, the second section includes the conclusion of the study derived from the findings and the third section includes the suggestions for future research.

5.1 Summary

The study was conducted in 10 different commercial banks of Nepal among the 105 respondents. The main objective of the study is to understand the influence of job hopping determinants on job hopping decision. Over recent years Nepalese banks has been facing the lots of employees turnover. In a concrete sense job switching has become common trend in banking sectors of Nepal and there has been significant increase in job switching behaviors among bankers.

The main objective of this research is to analyze the relationship between job hopping and factors affecting job hopping behaviors. The research was mainly focused on the commercial banking industry of Nepal. Among the respondents, male respondents were more than female respondents. The male respondents were 54.3% and female respondents were 45.7%. In the marital status, 68.6% respondents were unmarried and 31.4 % respondents were married. Talking about age group majority of respondents was mainly in between 25-55 years of age who comprised 78.1% of the total respondents. However, very few respondents above 45-55 years (1%) and 35-45 years (2.9%) also participated in this research. Most of the respondents had masters (52 respondents) and bachelors (48 respondents) level of education. There were no respondents who have done Ph.D. and just 1 respondent from Chartered Accountant level of education. Among the respondents, 85.7% were non-executive and 14.3% were executive. Similarly, 39 %

respondents responded that they are engaged with their current organization for 3 and above years and there were just 17.2% respondents who have worked for their respective banks for less than 1 year. 89.5% said that job switching was their personal choice whereas 9.5% respondents replied it was mandatory for them when asked to them whether job switching was their personal choice. And lastly, 66.7% bankers said that they are planning to switch to other banks within coming two years of time while 33.3% respondents replied that they will not switch to another banks.

5.2 Conclusion

Banking sector is one of the flourishing services industries in Nepal. Numbers of commercial banks in Nepal are operating very well in terms of financial capabilities or in terms of satisfactions of their clients. And the most crucial part is attraction towards the banking industries is in increasing trend, mostly youth population has targeted banks to enhance their career growth. In recent years the number of expansions of the banks led the bankers to become choosy and ultimately bankers get chances to engage in different organization as per their wish. Due to this fact the competition in banking sector is very tough.

On the other hand banking industries has been providing lots of facilities to magnetize the talented human capital in their organization. The facilities like job promotion, pay/benefits, working environment, career growth opportunities etc. However Job hopping has numerous negative impacts on existing banks whereas some positive impact to the switched bank. Due to the intense turnover of the key employees banks have to lose the productive manpower and likewise they have bear cost of hiring new employees. Whereas for the organization where people has switched will get the opportunities to gain productive manpower effortlessly and cost of providing addition to newly recruit employees etc. From the employees' perspective, job switching will help them to enter into the new working environment where they can have possibility to enhance career growth, become financially strong and satisfied with their job.

From the findings of this study it can be concluded that job switching is familiar term in banking sector. From the fact that 67.7% of the respondents being surveyed in this study

said in coming two years of time they are planning to change existing bank. This proves that still bank employees are in a mood to switch their bank in coming years. And this might be the serious challenge or problem for the employers. Likewise all the factors (job satisfaction, pay/salary, job promotion and career growth) taken in this study were found to have negative impact upon job switching, it can be said that these factors have led the bank employees to switch their existing organization. However from the outputs of this research it has been found that career growth and job promotion has played the significant roles in the job turnover of the bankers. Therefore to prevent the organization from the huge loss from the turnover of the talented and productive manpower the employers should mainly focus on these two factors.

5.3 Recommendations

The focus of this research is to study the influence of job hopping dimensions on job hopping decision, in the light of determinants derived from extensive literature review. The determinants derived were job satisfaction dimension, pay/salary dimension, and job promotion dimension and career growth factors. Besides these there are other factors that contribute in affecting the job switching behaviors of the Nepalese bankers like company brand, organizational philosophy, working conditions etc. So, other variables need to be taken into consideration for future research.

There has been carried out least research works related to job switching behaviors of people from banking sector. This study can assist other researchers when conducting similar kinds of research works. As in this study there are numbers of prospective matters to be researched from the findings generated from this research work. The sample size undertaken for this research was very limited so in future other researchers could select more number of sample sizes so that the better and more reliable result could be achieved. As this study is purely an academic research. Therefore in future more professional research should be conducted so that more accurate information could be gained and that will be helpful for the employers to gain insights about factors leading to job switching among bank employees. Accordingly that will help them to go for corrective remedies to stop job hopping.

Chapter I

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Skilled and talented human capital is on a very high demand today, more than ever. It is the new inventions and changing technologies that is forever creating new avenues and further accelerating this demand. The human resource is the most critical resource which determines the success and failure of the organization. The intelligence, creativity and thoughtfulness make human resource important in organizations. Human resource or employees utilize other resources and work for company benefits and lead towards success. Human resources are not only resource in itself but are those components that are entitled to effectively utilize other resources available in an organization. Their role in an organization can be like giving contribution for formulation strategy, effective utilization financial resources, executive/specialists role in the areas that needs it, facilitator to achieve the organization's goal and so on.

But every organization no matter that is bigger or smaller in size has always faced the problem of management of human capital. There are different aspects that tend to become obstacles and hinder the optimum utilization of the resources and most of the time they are called Human Resource Chronicles. Job Hopping is also considered as one of the HR Chronicles. There used to be time when people used to be stick with the single job for years and get retired from that job. But those days are gone. Now situation has been changed; job longevity has become the past. The average worker today stays at each of his or her jobs for 4.4 years, but in case of the workforce's youngest employees is about half of that (Bureau of Labor Statistics, US). As it is commonly said that human needs are never ending, an individual may prefer to change his/her job in order to command a higher compensation package/higher designation. This strategy can be termed as Job Hopping. The actual introduction time of the term "job hopping" has not been cleared till

now. Ghiselli has explained it as the periodic itch to move from a job in one place to some other job in some other place. He argued that this wanderlust is derived from instinctive impulses and does not seem to result from organized logical thought, but rather from the internal impulsiveness of individuals.

Over the past decades the problem of job-hopping has become a global problem. In today's economic uncertainty, for employees will see job-hopping as a way to provide job security for them. Employees often leave before downsizing occurs or take temporary jobs to pay the bills after layoffs have occurred, looking out for themselves and their families. Employees want work-life balance benefits to retain their quality of life and loyalty to family, not company, as well as career enhancement benefits to provide skills for their next job should a layoff occur.

One of the major concerns of Nepalese banking sector is that they are facing the intense problem of employee turnover. The banking sector of Nepal is one of most attractive, popular and charming job offering market in terms of the job status, pay/benefits, career growth etc. however there is high employee turnover fact in Nepalese banking sector. Though the history of job hopping has not been monitored or recorded in the papers as done for other subjects, the buzz of this concept has shaken the very concept of human resource assets and capital of the organization. If the organization has a skilled employee at their company but they are not able to retain him/her then there will be no use of having the retention policies. A company may discard the resume of a job hopper while recruiting but it may not always be able to stop its employee from switching the jobs. Previously, if one listed a series of jobs on their resume, employers branded them as unstable. In short, they are regarded as not a team player or a company person. The new thinking is job-hoppers are priceless assets who are more experienced and marketplace-savvy than someone who has held one job for a long time. If people haven't moved in two or two-and-a-half years, they are regarded as worth less because an experience always counts.

According to The Free Dictionary, job hopping is the practice of changing jobs frequently, especially as a means of quick financial gain or career advancement. This

definition has addresses the economic gain and the career growth opportunities are the prime reasons behind job switching. In Nepal too majority of bank employees frequently changes their job in hope to get more compensation for their new tenure. Not only salaries, they also get chances to developed their career in banking sector as they get opportunities to get experiences by working with different organizations. Abelson (1993) defined turnover culture as the shared cognition by organizational members that influence their decisions regarding job movement. Turnover culture makes hopping from one job to the other an acceptable behavior. If an employee has not changed his or her job for a long time, he or she feels increasing pressure to do so because of social influences/turnover culture. Abelson forwarded very distinctive cause for the job mobility. According to him sometimes people goes for job hopping due to the influences from the social members like family members, friends, coworkers, close relatives and so on.

Research conducted by ASID find that physical and work environment play role in employees decision whether to leave the job or stay and consider as a major factors in employee retention. The outcome of this research advocate on working environment as cause for job switching which in Nepal's context has moderate affect on job mobility. Hence, there need to have enough study related to job hopping behavior of the employees is needed in the organization in order to determine the major cause for it and its likely impact on the organization.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

These days, job hopping is practically a way of life, spending four decades at one company, ultimately retiring with lump sum amount and pension plan is quite uncommon. A candidate's resume with four different jobs in the space of six years would have been tossed in the garbage by most recruiters 20 years ago; he would have been viewed as an unreliable job hopper. But now in the time of information and change where most of the employees would like to view themselves as a "free agent", whom a recruiter can't disregard as distrustful the job hoppers.

The job hopping trend has been very common world-wide and is also similar in Nepal as well. Gradually the job switching trend has been adopted by employees in Nepal. There

used to be time when majority of people were attracted towards government job. Whenever the government announces public service entrance examination there will be huge line for form submission. The reason behind this trend is most of the Nepalese wanted permanent and secured job. But this number has been slightly reduced due the end of elder generation who prefer permanent job. Beside government jobs, banking sector is one which has been continuously providing job opportunities to numerous manpower of Nepal. The youth of current generation are very dynamic and more careers focused and looking for high status oriented job. These days they dream about having their future in banking industries. In the other hand this sector has provided better career growth opportunities. Side by side the banking sector has been offering numerous facilities to attract them. And the result is frequency of job changing habits in youth has been observed.

The bank supervision report of NRB (2012) suggested that there is lack of proper staff retention policy and Nepalese banks are facing high staff turnover. And the report said that one of the reasons for high staff turnover is job dissatisfaction. Though the banks pays higher amount of salary to the employees, there is tremendous level of high job turnover. The employees are not switching their job to other banks but leaving the industry as a whole and engaging to other sector. The cost of retaining old employees with the new is estimated up to the twice the employee's annual salary Get les Mckeown's (2002). He means to say that the cost of acquiring new employees is very much costly than retaining the existing employee where as in other side the turnover has been seen high in many organizations and employees, it is very much essential to retain the existing employees.

Although there are many research works conducted in the field of job hopping behavior of employees all over the world, however the similar kinds of study is very limited and insufficient in Nepal especially in banking sector. Therefore, this study will examine the impact of organizational support, emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction and affected commitment on Job hopping behavior of employees working in banks in Kathmandu valley, this research is guided by the following questions:

- How job satisfaction, pay/salary, employee promotion and career growth influence on job hopping behaviors of Nepalese bankers?
- Which factors has major influence on job switching intention of bank employees?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

Job hopping/switching is major problem in an organization. The root cause problem and the reasons for it are needed to be studied. The study of job Hopping gives meaning and some facts related to job mobility behaviors of people working in the banks in Nepal. In Nepalese context, very few studies are related with job hopping has been studied. The major objectives of this study are as follows:

- To study the factors affecting job hopping in the banking sectors of Nepal
- To determine the relationship between job satisfactions and job hopping behavior.
- To identify the relationship between employees' promotion and job hopping behavior.
- To find out the relationship between career growth and job hopping behavior.
- To determine the relationship between pay/benefits and job hopping behavior.
- To identify the most influential factors that affects the job hopping behaviors of the bank employees.

The researcher hopes that the findings of this study would provide a foundation for understanding of job hopping behaviors of Nepalese bankers and its effect on Nepalese banking sector.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The prime purpose of this research is to find out the relationship of job hopping with the factors affecting it. The study finds out the situation of job hopping in banking sector. Moreover, it determines the issues leading to the job mobility in the banks of Nepal. The study might be helpful to the Nepalese banking sector and in a broader sense to the Nepalese organizations too. The findings of the study would give information regarding the job mobility status of people working in commercial banks in Nepal. It is therefore,

results of the study will provide a better understanding to the banking industry about job mobility problems. This information will assist the organizations to formulate strategies related to human resources management like employee retention programs, trainings, performance appraisal, and compensation management and so on.

As already mentioned that there has been least research done regarding the job hopping behaviors of Nepalese bankers. Not only in banking segment there has been done very little research related to job hopping in overall organization in Nepal. Finally, this study will bring some new insights in the banking field and would provide guidelines for the future research works in Nepalese banking sector.

1.5 Hypotheses

Since this research is being conducted to find the influence of job switching factors like job satisfaction, pay/salary, job promotion and career growth on job switching behavior of the Nepalese bankers, following hypothesis are drawn:

H0₁: There is no significant relationship between job satisfactions and job hopping behaviors of the bank employees.

H0₂: There is no significant relationship between pay/benefits and job hopping behaviors of the bank employees..

H0₃: There is no significant relationship between employees' promotion and job hopping behaviors of the bank employees.

H0₄: There is no significant relationship between career growth and job hopping behaviors of the bank employees.

1.6 Operational Definitions

Job Hopping

Job Hopping is the practice of changing the job frequently. It's the pattern of changing the companies' time and again or sometimes even within the months. Job-hopping refers

to the case in which people's leaves his current firm and subsequently joins other position in another firm.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

This study has attempted to analyze the job hopping behaviors in Nepalese banking sector. As far known to the researcher, it has used the suitable methods and identified the research findings. However, every research has its limitations which can arise during and after data collection and interpretation. Moreover, this research is based on the selected commercial banks inside the Kathmandu valley.

Some of the limitations in this study are as follows:

- This research is entirely carried out in Kathmandu valley. The respondents may not be the representative of the whole population of banking sector in Nepal.
- Analysis is mainly based on primary as well as secondary data such as the website. The website information, published documents and the personal information have their own limitations.
- Data is collected through the self-administered questionnaire. The data is collected from the individual understanding of the respondents.
- The conditions under which the questionnaires were filled up by the respondents were not controlled. Every respondent filled up the questionnaires in different settings. The external environment may influence the respondents.
- Due to geographical and time constraint, respondents were only taken from Kathmandu valley.

1.8 Organization of the Study

The proposed study is organized into five chapters – Introduction, Literature Review and Theoretical Framework, Research Design and Methodology, Results and Discussions and Summary and Conclusion.

Chapter 1: Introduction

The first chapter introduces with the background of the Study, statement of the research problems, objectives of the study, significance of the study, hypothesis of the study, limitations of the study and operational definitions of the study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

The second chapter is differentiated into four parts which are literature on job hopping and literature on factors affecting job hopping. Also, theoretical framework was also illustrated and each variable were described in this chapter.

Chapter 3: Research Design and Methodology

The third chapter describes the methodology used for this study. This chapter introduces the introduction, research design, population and sample, nature and source of data, methods of analysis, nature of respondents, statistical tool used and methodological limitations.

Chapter 4: Results and Discussion

This chapter includes the analysis of the data which are gathered from the research and presentation of the data. This chapter also includes graphs, tables and findings of this study.

Chapter 5: Summary and Conclusion

The fifth chapter states about the summary, conclusion and suggestions for future research.

Chapter II

Review of literature and theoretical framework

2.1 Job

A job, which originally meant “a piece of work” or “a task” Bridges (1988), has now also taken on a similar definition to occupation and employment, “a specific duty or function or role,” and “a regular remunerative position” (MWD). In centuries past, these terms may have been used quite distinctively, but they are currently used almost interchangeably in ordinary language, and in the language of social science. Hamermesh et al. (1996) defines job as a distinct set of duties and responsibilities that the employer recognizes as being attached to a position of employment. Similar types of explanation is been given by the BusinessDictionary.com. It has explained the job as a group of homogeneous tasks related by similarity of functions. When performed by an employee in an exchange for pay, a job consists of duties, responsibilities, and tasks (performance elements) that are defined and specific, and can be accomplished, quantified, measured, and rated. From a wider perspective, a job is synonymous with a role and includes the physical and social aspects of a work environment. Often, individuals identify themselves with their job or role (foreman, supervisor, engineer, etc.) and derive motivation from its uniqueness or usefulness.

Davis and Haltiwanger 1998 jobs are filled by a worker with a labor contract. Job is all about the contractual relationship between the employers and the employees. Davis et al. (1996) define a job as an employment position filled by a worker. Job is the agreement between an employee and the employer SNA (2008). The employers themselves identify a job. Dictionary.com defines job as a piece of work, especially a specific task done as part of the routine of one's occupation or for an agreed price. Webster.com too has explained it as a piece of work; especially: a small miscellaneous piece of work undertaken on order at a stated rate. The job is principle activity in one's career life that they do to earn money. Thus job is the activity performed for some specific fee.

A job is collection of tasks, duties, and responsibilities, which as a whole is regarded as a regular assignment to individual employees Kul Narsingh (2006). Kul Narsingh explicates that every employees are delegated a job which is comprised of certain tasks along with duties and responsibilities. DeCenzo and Stephen P. Robbins (2005) too suggested that job is a set of closely related tasks carried out for pay. It consists of bundle of tasks. A job is building blocks of organization's structure. In essence the job is the base or pillar for any organization on which whole organization is dependent.

Job is the means for achieving goals. They are the link between people and organization. Organizations employ people because there job to be done. Jobs serve as the source of employment. Job helps to accomplish the organizational goal. People and organization are closely inter-dependent. Organization appoints people so that their task can be completed and on the hand, people are benefited with the employment opportunities

Types of job as suggested by Agrawal G.R (2006):

Independent job

There is no overlapping of activities among employees. Each activities of the organization will be independent of each other and employees too are independent to each other. In these kinds of job there will be no connection between on department to another department of organizations. It is rare in business world context.

Sequential Job

Activities of one employee are dependent of activities of other employees. Different jobs are interconnected, job cannot be accomplished independently.

Pooled Job

Activities of all employees are interdependent. All employees contribute to the final output. It is most common types of job.

2.2 Job hopping

Job hopping is the natural internal impulse to move from one job to another for sometimes no apparent or rational reason that is irrespective of whether they have better

alternative job offers or not Ghiselli (1974). From Ghiselli's definition it can be infer that the job hopping is the natural phenomena of switching from one job to another that occurs with some wise reason or sometimes without any factual reason. The author also describes this hobo syndrome behavior as the periodic itch to move from a job in one place to some other job in some other place. The hobo syndrome is observed by the number of times workers reportedly leave their jobs for another in their entire career.

Chew (1996) claims that job hoppers used to find alternative employments before quitting their jobs but the trend is to leave even before they have secured any alternative appointments. In Japan, the term "fretters," was coined during the bubble economy of the 1980s. They consist of high school leavers and fresh graduates (aged between 15 to 34 years old) who choose not to have regular full – time employment (Kondo, 2007). Such job hoppers like the mobility and freedom to be able to frequently change their jobs because they do know what exactly they want to do with their lives and career.

The yourdictionary.com in their official site define job hopping as the practice of changing jobs frequently, especially as a means of quick financial gain or career advancement. In their definition they have given emphasis on mainly on two factors for job switching; one is in to gain better salary/benefits and another to gain better career opportunities people tend to switch their frequently. Kawabe (1991) finds job hopping common among the knowledge intensive and information technology (IT) employees in Malaysia. He says that they are mostly driven by monetary reasons. However, he was quick to add that the situation is more prevalent in the more industrialized Asian countries like Singapore, Hong Kong, and Korea. Inagami (1998) agrees that job hopping was a common phenomenon among employees in Malaysia in the early 1990s. Their mobility was driven by the shortage of labor across the economic sectors. Malaysian and foreign workers, he notes, readily changed their jobs for as little as one Malaysian Ringgit. James (1991) concurs that money is not the main reason why some highly educated employees and those working in favorable labor markets job hop. They do so because of the availability of vast options in the job market.

According to Khatri et al. (1999), the definition of job hopping behavior varies from one country to another. They suggest two types of such behaviors based on their study in

Singapore. The first is when individuals change jobs because of their strong personal desire to try it for fun. The second type describes a turnover culture that is motivated by some social support. If employees have not changed their jobs for some time, they come under some social pressure from their co-workers to do so soon.

Annalee Saxenian (1994) was among the first to observe that high rates of mobility were a source of agglomeration economies in Silicon Valley. According to her the high rate of mobility among technical employees reinforced the benefits of modularity because skilled employees rapidly transferred from firms with inferior component designs to those with superior designs. Job-hopping between companies creates the likelihood that knowledge acquired in one firm is employed in another. Those knowledge spillovers can hamper innovation by reducing the rewards to investing in human capital, Gilson (1999). He brought attention to this assumption and observed that high rates of mobility by knowledgeable employees were likely to impose nontrivial costs on employers. These costs may cause employers to take actions to limit job-hopping even when the social benefits of agglomeration economies exceed the costs. “Non-compete” agreements, according to Gilson, are the most important legal mechanism for reducing inter-firm mobility. These agreements limit an employee’s ability to work with competing firms in a specific geographic area and for a specific period of time.

Lehmer and Ludsteck (2008) in their study analyze the employees might hop job to get returns from it. The impact of the job migrant could be both short term and long term which depends upon the level of skills they have. In their findings they found that the immediate impact is larger for the low skilled, whereas the high skilled workers reap larger long term gains. Knight and Yueh (2004) find that the job switching in the urban labor market is far more mobile than the urban residents. They consider the difference arising from the difference in the reservation wages between the two types. Thus, the different mobility is due to the segregation of the labor markets which, in turn, is responsible for the gap in the access to the good jobs. Kondo and Ou (2010), on the other hand, compares two types of permanent migrants and found that rural to urban migrants are more mobile across jobs and they are more likely to move to better jobs by changing work units, whereas urban migrants are more likely to be promoted within a work-unit.

Gao, Juan Luo, Tang (2013) Executive job-hopping refers to the case in which one executive leaves his current firm and subsequently takes an executive position in another firm (in most cases, for greater pay and/or higher position). They also found that firms raise pay more aggressively for incumbent executives when losing a higher-ranking executive to another firm, industry competitor, to a nearby company, and when the job-hopper is paid more in the new company than in the former one. In the similar study on Job hopping Balsam and Miharjo (2007) suggested that after losing top executives, firms not only pay their remaining managers more generously, but also structure the compensation package for the purpose of better retention. This means in order to retain the executives the organization designed their compensation package in such way they will have least intention to leave their job. Further they add the extent that managers whose incumbent compensation is already excessive are less likely to leave their current positions voluntarily. Likewise, it is easier for a manager to move to a new firm if there are a large number of same-industry companies Deng and Gao (2012), they find that the magnitude of pay growth is positively associated with the number of industry peer firms. Given that managers usually have better outside opportunities in industries that have more outside hiring (Cremers and Grinstein (2011), firms in these industries are found to have a greater pay raise after a job-hopping event. Moreover, Oyer (2004) shows that managers' outside employment opportunities are positively associated with market condition. Thus, managers have fewer outside opportunities in the market recession period. Gao, Juan Luo, Tang (2013) firms raise pay less during the market recession period in response to losing executives. When managers are approaching retirement or have already stayed in the firm for long, they are less likely to look for new jobs and thus have less mobility in the labor market Balsam and Miharjo (2007) and Gibbons and Murphy (1992).

Frydman (2005) proposes a shift in the importance of skills from firm-specific to more general managerial skills for top executives and theorizes that the shift leads to higher manager pay and higher mobility of executives. The conclusion of their findings is that whenever there is up gradation of specialized skills in executives, to get higher pay they tend to switch their job. Cremers and Grinstein (2011) find empirical evidence in favor of this explanation. Montgomery (1991) and Rees (1966) when one executive finds the

competing job offer more attractive and leaves for a new firm, other executives probably also find that the pay package from potential outside opportunities is appealing. Fee and Hadlock (2004) examine the new employment of executives after they are fired by their former employers and find that only about one-third of fired executives obtain top management positions afterwards and that the new firms are, on average, one-tenth as large as their former firms were they will be more likely to swift their job.

Job-hopping firms, on average, are two times bigger in sales than the non-job-hopping firms are, consistent with the view that managers in larger firms tend to have better outside opportunities Gabaix and Landier (2008). The reason is job-hopping firms are generally older and have slightly lower growth of sales, higher growth of cash holding, lower ROA, and lower stock volatility. Åstebro et al. (2011) argue that a history of job hopping is associated with a greater likelihood of entry into self-employment, and used a Korean data set to empirically show that higher number of job changes is indeed positively related to transition into self-employment. From their finding it can be infer that with the motive to turn themselves into entrepreneur they will like to numerous job experiences. The ultimate aim of job switcher is to start up their own business ventures. Further, Åstebro and Thompson (2011) use a dataset of Canadian inventors to investigate the motivations governing the choices of a varied labor market experience; they find that greater variety of labor market experience is resulting from the “taste for variety”. In this particular study it was found that individuals in a search variety of job experiences go for job change. Thus entrepreneurs have a richer job history and more varied experiences when compared to wage employees. Rosen (1972), “a large fraction of the directly marketable skills possessed by individuals are not acquired from formal schooling, but rather from work experience”; for which the person must engaged with more than one business organization. Experience in the wage sector provides skills, information, abilities also useful for entrepreneurs (Chatterj, 2009; Unger et al. 2009). Chatterji (2008) argues that work experience at an incumbent firm provides a number of valuable skills and resources for future entrepreneurs, including the ability to identify opportunities. It can be argued that entrepreneurs who accumulate experiences across different firms in the same industry are then exposed to a variety of environments and resources that improve their ability of opportunity identification. Fallick, Fleischman and Reibtzer

(1996) argue that frequent job-hopping facilitates the rapid reallocation of resources toward firms with the best innovations. This might mean that individuals who intend to become entrepreneurs are seeking to make the right kind of experience.

Jovanovic (1979) argues that this peculiarity is due to a lower firm-worker mismatch in the later stages of the career, as a result of the firm's learning about workers' ability. It is therefore observed that, on average, individuals at a later stage of their career will tend to be much less mobile than workers in the earlier stages of the career. This denotes job hopping varies according to the career stage of the individuals. It has been noted that late career workers have the tendency to remain in the same firm and present a limited tendency to job-hopping. Similarly Campion et al. (1994) show that job switching is more common for employees in early career than for those in late career suggesting that the former group may be more interested in the career benefits and the development of managerial talent stemming from experience in different positions within the firm. When considering the knowledge and skills acquisition and accumulation associated to different firm affiliations it can be noted that jobs tailored for workers in earlier stages of their career entail a larger learning component than jobs designed for a later career employee (Rosen, 1972): working at an early career stage is characterized by high levels of learning. Moreover, workers in the earlier stage of their career are subject to low switching costs. Switching costs in a sense that individuals who recently entered the labor force receive on average lower salaries than workers with higher tenure, which implies low opportunity costs. So for new enter switching to another job may be high opportunity loss as compared to the experiences one.

Gibbons and Waldman (2004), the promotions within the firm are structured in a way that minimizes the underutilization of task-specific human capital. This is likely to represent a high switching cost that individuals are confronted to when moving to another employer, since this component of human capital cannot be utilized in the new firm. Furthermore, the opportunity cost of mobility to another firm is substantially higher for late career employees than for workers who entered the labor force more recently, given higher salary earned by the former employees. Finegold et al. (2002) workers at the later stage of their career do not seem to take in great consideration opportunities to develop

technical skills when planning decisions about moving to a new firm. Arguably, workers at the later stage of their career who are affiliated to a large number of different employers prior to entry into self-employment do not do so in order to broaden their abilities and qualify as jack-of all- trades. Promotions minimize the underutilization of the human capital developed Helfat and Lieberman (2002). From this it can be analyzed that individuals who accumulate experience in different positions will exploit efficiently their human capital.

According to Mark McNulty, president HR dimension, whenever the managers sit for the job interview they always look at the resume to determine whether the candidate is job hopper or not. He further had explained that the reasons for job switching are for increased responsibility, new challenges and opportunities to develop new skills, or due to the performance issues and personal conflicts. Job-hopping by skilled engineers and scientists provides a vibrant channel for knowledge dissemination within industries Agarwal, Ganco, Ziedonis (2011). They mean to say that due to the transfer of skilled manpower within the same industry helps to share their expertise knowledge and experiences with each other. But further they added for firms losing key talent, such departures can deliver a double blow—not only do they lose valuable human capital but rivals stand to gain technological know-how at their expense. As a result, competitive advantage can be eroded. Arrow (1962) observed that employment turnover among engineers and scientists were a vehicle for transmitting technological “know-how” and information across firm boundaries. Levin et al. (1987) report that hiring employees from rivals increases the speed and efficiency with which established firms incorporate new technologies. Other numerous scholars have used patent citations to trace the effects of mobility on knowledge diffusion (e.g., Almeida and Kogut, 1999; Rosenkopf and Almeida, 2003; Oettl and Agrawal, 2008). Echoing results from managerial surveys (Levin et al., 1987; 4 Bhide, 1994), these citations-based studies further suggest that firms learn by hiring skilled engineers and scientists from rivals. Pakes and Nitzan (1983); Anton and Yao (1995); Kim and Marschke (2005); Hellman (2007); Cassiman and Ueda (2006); Franco and Filson (2006); Chatterjee and Rossi-Hansberg (2010) investigates the effects of employee turnover on inter-firm knowledge transfers, a separate strand of research

explores the intra-firm (employer-employee) dynamics that give rise to voluntary employee departures.

The only way to find a better job is to quit the one you had L. Chan, Picador (2008). This means until and unless the employees didn't have experiences of different job they will not get better job. The changing demographics of the labour market, enduring skills shortages and employee demand for work-life balance have created a so-called war for talent (Alleyne, 2005). Drucker (1994) feels that employees have an upper hand in the workplace as they are seen to hold the tool of trade through their knowledge. The bargaining power of employees in terms of their skills, talent, and knowledge lead them to impose pressure on employers. Van As (2001) believes that the high mobility of talented workers in South Africa is caused by factors like emigration of skilled workers and equity legislation that cause companies to chase numbers, forcing highly qualified Black talent to be mobile. Clark & Kleyn (2007) on their study on job hopping of African Black senior managers founded Black managers tend to leave organisations due to the environmental, organisational and individual factors Environmental factors are those that exist outside the boundaries of the organisation, including political factors, culture and behaviour, technological changes and economic and legal factors over which the organisation does not have direct control (Cook & Hunsaker, 2001). Organisational and individual factors are those that are a source of discomfort and push the individual to desire to leave the organisation (Clark & Kleyn, 2007).

(Kraemer & Bittlingmayer (2001) workers other than highly qualified, skilled and technical know-how are forced to switch jobs because of the pressures of quickly evolving occupational fields. This due to the increasing technological innovation and shorter product life cycles have all led to a continuous demand for highly qualified skilled workers where as the less qualified and older workers are increasingly required to undergo additional training. In particular, companies that operate globally look for competencies that are linked to mobility such as language skills or knowledge of foreign markets and cultures Winkelmann (2002, 290 f). The companies themselves claim, they hire foreign workers because of their good English language skills or their knowledge of foreign markets. He believes that the business organization are demanding employees due

to the competencies the employees have got like cross cultural sensitiveness, know-how of global markets etc.

Job changes can be initiated by the worker (the supply side of the labour relationship) or by the employer (the demand side) (Booth, Francesconi and Garcia-Serrano, 1999). Their study concluded that job mobility is an outcome of workers and employers trying to maximize their utility and profit, respectively. According to them if the workers feel that they will get better benefits from other jobs as compared to current job then they will be more likely to shift their current job and go for new one. When determining the utility of the current job and of the new job, the financial rewards are usually emphasized Groot and Verberne, (1997); they addressed on financial reward as the major utility for job change. But financial rewards alone may not be influencing the job mobility. A worker may also gain utility from other, non-wage job characteristics such as working conditions or the leisure time available to them. The starting wages offered by the new employer are usually known when making the decision to change job; however, knowledge about the actual non-wage conditions and future wage growth is only gained later Osberg et al (1986). From the employer's perspective, an employer will wish to end the employment relationship if the benefits from doing so (minus the costs of making the employee redundant) exceed the benefits of keeping the employee Booth, Francesconi and Garcia-Serrano (1999). Workers, in making their mobility decision, however, may not necessarily be able to evaluate the three factors of this equation correctly: their expectations of involuntary future job mobility may be influenced by fear or by other factors, so causing them to assess the situation incorrectly. Certain features of the current economic environment such as rapid shifts in technology, innovative forms of business organization, flexible workplace practices and intense competitive pressures cause a heightened perception of job insecurity in many countries (OECD, 1999), which leads people to expect greater forced job mobility than is actually the case.

Job mobility is the ability of workers to move up (or at times down) the scale of occupations inside an enterprise or from one enterprise to another within the same industry and across industries Acharya and Jose, (1991) In their definition two factors has been given more emphasizes; scale of occupations and sectors of occupation. The scale of

occupation refers to moving from one job to another job that can higher than present position or can lower position as compared to current job position. And sector means the individuals can swift to another job belonging to the same industry or sometimes could move to completely new industry. The concept further broadened over the years. Mobility between employer (Job-to-job mobility) Mobility between occupations and steps on career ladder mobility between different types of contracts In and out of employment (employment mobility) Anderson et al. (2008). Mamgain, Rani (2010) defines Job mobility as change in work status, change across occupations, change in industry groups, and change in enterprise.

2.3 Factors affecting the Job Mobility

2.3.1 Job satisfaction

The history of job satisfaction stems back to the early 1900's with the situations perspective on job satisfaction. This perspective states that satisfaction is determined by certain characteristics of the job and characteristics of the job environment itself. This view has been present in the literature since the first studies by Hauser, Taylor and the various projects at the Western Electric plants in Hawthorne (Cranny, Smith & Stone 1992). Job satisfaction is described as the positive attitude and emotion towards one's job and work environment (Locke, 1978). Job satisfaction has been defined as the degree to which employees have a positive affective orientation towards employment by the organization (Price, 1997). The positive feeling results from employees' perception of the extent to which their jobs complement their personal goals. Another defines job satisfaction as an affective (emotional) reaction to a job that results from the incumbents' comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired (Cranny, Smith, Stone, 1992). It reveals their value judgment about their expectations and perceptions of the effort they put in and the outcomes that they receive. Empirical findings suggest that satisfied employees are more likely to be affectively committed to their organization than those who are dissatisfied (Mathieu and Hamel, 1989; Williams and Hazer, 1986).

Job satisfaction is one of the most studied constructs in the areas of industrial organizational psychology, social psychology, organizational behavior, personnel and

human resource management, and organizational management. This makes sense in that knowledge of the determinants, the consequences, and other correlates of job satisfaction can be vital to organizational success Cranny, Smith & Stone (1992). Employers interested in remaining competitive in today's world economy need to concentrate on retaining quality employees. "Rewarding employees for work well-done increases satisfaction and productivity" Walker, (1998, p.18). Customer satisfaction and loyalty are excellent predictors of profitability, the strongest predictors of customer satisfaction: employees' general satisfaction with their jobs and employees' satisfaction with their work/life balance" McDonald & Hutcheson (1999, p.1). Results of studies comparing differences between age groups and level of job satisfaction report increases in job satisfaction with age Osipow, (1968). Osipow claims that there is positive relationship between the job satisfaction and the age level means that as the employees get more matured their satisfaction towards the job goes up.

Shields and Price (2002) and Appelbaum et al. (2003) look at intentions to quit and how these relate to job satisfaction. Shields and Price carry out a case study of nurses in Britain while Appelbaum et al. analyze low-wage, low-skilled workers in US hospitals. Both studies find that intentions to quit strongly correlate with job dissatisfaction. Martin & Roodt (2007) it is expected that individuals with a preference for intra-organizational career mobility may be more satisfied if they perceive that their organization provides career mobility opportunities. Thus Job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been proven to correlate negatively with career mobility, the greater the job satisfaction and organizational commitment, the lower the predictive turnover intention. In order to reduce the high costs incurred through employee turnover and to maintain a competitive advantage Kaplan et al., (2000), informed talent retention practices are required. Informed talent retention requires insight into all phenomena related to employee turnover. The literature shows that the relationship between perceived career mobility and job satisfaction should inform talent retention practices. Bočkerman and Ilmakunnas (2007). Using a Finnish data set, they find that job disamenities reduce job satisfaction, which in turn increases quit intentions and job changes.

Research has demonstrated that a high degree of job satisfaction is negatively correlated with job departures, even after controlling for wages and hours of work in cross-sectional designs (Flanagan, Strauss and Ulman, 1974; Freeman, 1978; Akerlof et al, 1988; Ward and Sloane 2000; Kristensen and Westergard-Nielsen, 2004). It has also been found that work-related intentions to leave a job and low job satisfaction are highly correlated (Shields and Price, 2002; Appelbaum et al, 2003). A number of studies have also demonstrated that job satisfaction recovers significantly after a job change (Akerlof et al, 1988; van der Velde and Feij, 1995; Swaen et al, (2002). McCormick, DeNisi, and Staw (1979), which states that individuals will tend to gravitate around occupations and jobs which ensure the best match between a worker's ability and job requirements, as well as with personal requirements and occupation-specific reward structures. The authors suggest that job mobility is the instrument to achieve such a better match.

2.3.2 Pay/Salary

Pay satisfaction is defined as the amount of overall positive affect (or feelings) the earliest to recognize the motivating effects of pay when he proposed that workers put forth extra effort on the job to maximize their economic gains. Their explanation put emphasis on pay and benefit as motivating factors for job performance. Pay has long been considered one of the most important organizational rewards Heneman & Judge (2000) because it allows employees to obtain other rewards (Lawler, 1971). Compensation satisfaction serves as a critical mediator between an organization's compensation policy and relevant behavioral and attitudinal outcomes (Blau, 1994; Lawler, 1981; Sturman & Short, 2000). Wren (1994), money remains the fundamental way that organizations reward employees. From the inception of organizational science, pay has been considered an important reward to motivate the behavior of employees (Taylor, 1911). Taylor advocates that the pay still has been taken as one the key tool to motivate the employees to retain in the organization no matter the organization today are of 21st century's. Yet it was not until theorists began exploring fairness in social exchanges Adams (1963);

Reinforcement theory (Skinner, 1953) suggests that pay acts as a general reinforce because of its repeated pairing with primary reinforcers. Pay/money is the major

influencer to motivate employees inside organization. People learn from life experiences that a primary need, such as food or shelter, can be satisfied if money is obtained. Dollard & Miller (1950) stated that people engage in behaviors because of past experiences, but the process by which past experiences determine an individual's future behavior remained unclear therefore whether treating pay as a means to an end or as an end itself, reinforcement theory does not provide a clear explanation for how pay acts as an impetus for action. Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory helped clarify how pay influences future behavior. Vroom (1964) suggests that pay motivates behavior only if valued by the employee or if pay allows individuals to obtain some other highly valued outcome.

Along with reinforcement (Skinner, 1953) and expectancy theories (Vroom, 1964), Herzberg (1968) in his two-factor theory explain why pay is generally regarded as a major mechanism for rewarding and modifying behavior (Opsahl & Dunnette, 1966). Herzberg's (1968) two-factor motivational model provides an important link between pay research and pay satisfaction research by suggesting that it is the individual's affective reaction to pay, pay satisfaction, that impacts motivation. Herzberg suggests pay is a hygiene, or contextual factor, that prevents an employee from being motivated by such things as the work itself. He suggests that if an organization wishes to motivate employees, the organization must first make sure pay and other hygiene factors are at such levels that dissatisfaction does not occur.

Equity theory of Festinger, (1957) also suggests that once an attitude regarding pay is formed, this attitude will cause individuals to act in certain ways, either maintaining their current behavior or changing their behavior in order to reach a state of satisfaction. Mobley's (1977) in his research determine that withdrawal cognition is the most immediate antecedent of voluntary turnover and that pay satisfaction is the most important determinant of turnover intentions. The conclusion of his study is that pay satisfaction may not be a direct determinant of turnover and future research should focus on the relationship between pay satisfaction and withdrawal cognitions.

According to Burdett (1978) once employed, the individual is able to continue searching and each firm the worker approaches offers the wage that is related to his productivity within the firm. The more intensely the worker searches, the higher is the arrival rate of

job offers. The worker switches jobs if the present value of the earnings stream in the alternative job exceeds that of the current job, after allowing for any costs incurred when switching jobs. Likewise Jovanovic (1979) explained job mobility allows for an improved sorting of workers among jobs, higher earnings may be expected.

Labor economists typically distinguish between two types of wages growth. First, *with in job wages growth* which means wage may grow over time with service with particular employer. Second, *between job wage growth*, workers may experience wage improvement when changing jobs. Borjas, Bronars, and Trejo (1992) wage gains may be contemporaneous with a move or may accrue with a lag as workers assimilate to their new environment. If economic returns to migration are worth coming immediately upon change of location, the gain must be realized in the form of between job wage improvements. However, if returns accrue over time they are likely to consist of both within and between job wage growths because workers may change jobs several times in their new location as part of assimilation process

Valérie Smeets 2006 found that the number of past job changes is positively related to wages. This result is consistent with the idea that workers changing firms end up with better matches than workers who do not change firms. He used panel of data to compute wage changes, and show that workers experiencing firm switches earn higher wage changes than other workers in Danish labor market. Becker (1973), in more dynamic extensions, a worker changes jobs when he receives an offer from a firm for which he is a better match and the higher wages exceed a switching cost. In other hand Search and switching cost theories predict that workers with more specific human capital and better matches will be less likely to leave their employers. This means the employees goes for switching their job until and unless that does provide the financial benefits and match their personalities with the job. Pavan (2005) conducted the survey in US market to analyze whether current wages are positively or negatively correlated with past firms changes. Later he found a positive correlation for firm changes and wage growth

2.3.3 Affective commitment

Organizational commitment refers to the attachment that individuals have towards their organizations (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). It refers to employees' loyalty to and their identification with the organization, as well as the internalization of organizational goals (Mowday et al., 1982). Mowday et al. suggest that when employees are committed to their organizations, they accept the corporate goals and values, and will go an extra mile to achieve organizational effectiveness. Much work has since been done conceptually and empirically to enable researchers and practitioners understand employee and organizational commitment better.

A plethora of research exists on organisational commitment, yet there is little consensus on the conceptualisation of this construct. In this study, organisational commitment refers to an attitude in terms of a stable mindset to the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). There are five approaches to conceptualising and measuring organisational commitment. The golden thread in all of these conceptualisations and measurements is that organisational commitment is a bond or linkage to the organisation (Roodt, 2004), and that a particular focus has the potential to fulfil salient needs (Martin & Roodt, 2007). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) highlight the following commonalities in the definitions of commitment: (a) it is a stabilising and obliging force; and (b) it provides direction to behaviour (e.g. restricts freedom and binds a person to a course of action). The differences involve details concerning the nature or origin of the stabilising force that gives direction to behaviour (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

The normative approach focuses on congruency between employee goals and values and organisational aims, which in turn result in an employee feeling obligated to their organisation (Suliman & Iles, 2000). There are both attitudinal and behavioural approaches to organisational commitment. The attitudinal approach refers to the process by which employees think about their relationship with the organisation, whereas the behavioural approach refers to the process by which employees become locked into an organisation and how they deal with this problem (Mowday et al., 1982; Scholl, 1981). According to the multi-foci approach, organisational commitment is directed toward different foci, such as the occupation, top management, supervisors, the team, co-

workers, the union and customers (Reichers, 1985; Wasti & Can, 2008). Whilst the multi-foci approach focuses on different contingencies within an organization, the multidimensional approach turns the focus toward the different forms of commitment. Meyer and Allen's (1991) multidimensional conceptualization of organizational commitment integrates normative, attitudinal and behavioral commitment to form a three-component model of organizational commitment, comprising of a cognitive, affective and cognitive component. Affective commitment arises from a sense of emotional attachment, continuance commitment is rooted in a sense of economic necessity, and normative commitment occurs out of a sense of moral obligation to remain (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007). Employees experiencing the different components remain with the organization for different reasons. Those experiencing affective commitment remain because they desire to do so, those experiencing continuance commitment remain because they need to, and those experiencing normative commitment remain due to a sense of obligation to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). There is critique of the multidimensional approach on the basis of a possible conceptual overlap between the affective and cognitive components (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Roodt, 2004), the possible one-dimensional nature of continuance commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001), and the possible diminished parsimony, clarity and precision due to the multidimensionality of this conceptualization (Roodt, 2004). From this, Roodt (2004) proposed a motivational one-dimensional conceptualization whereby organizational commitment is operationalized as a cognitive predisposition.

Despite the criticism, support exists for the dimensionality of the three-component model, as studies utilizing confirmatory factor analyses have found that these are better explained as separate factors, despite the high correlation that exists between affective and normative commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Meyer and Allen's (1991) conceptualization is utilized in this study due to the wealth of support for and research on these authors' approach to organizational commitment. In addition to the lack of consensus regarding the conceptualization of organizational commitment, authors' views differ regarding the development of organizational commitment and how it affects behavior (Meyer & Hercovitch, 2001). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) propose that affective commitment is developed through any variables, personal or situational, that

contribute to the likelihood that an individual will become intrinsically motivated to a course of action, and recognize the value of and/or develop identity from association with an entity or the pursuit of an action. These variables may include supervisor support and recognition (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Wayne et al., 2002); the perception of being treated fairly to enhance an employee's sense of personal importance and competence (Meyer & Allen, 1997); age, whereby older employees, or those with longer tenure, tend to be more committed (Levy, 2006); and gender (Mguqulwa, 2008).

According to Spector (2000), affective commitment occurs as a result of job conditions and met expectations, while continuance commitment occurs as a product of benefits accumulated from working for the organization and by a lack of alternative jobs. The latter is of particular interest to this study. Meyer and Allen (1991) propose that continuance commitment may develop as a result of the perception of a lack of alternatives. Whilst this view has received criticism, the implications of this argument are an interesting consideration for this study. It is argued that the relationship between continuance commitment and tenure is stronger than that between tenure and affective commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Findings regarding the relationship between tenure and organizational commitment are inconsistent (Martin & Roodt, 2007; Mguqulwa, 2008). Likewise, as discussed in the preceding section, studies regarding the relationship between gender and organizational commitment have yielded inconsistent results (Martin, 2007). Meyer and Allen (1997) hypothesize that early socialization processes may have an impact on employee normative commitment, as there is indirect evidence that suggests that employees with a need to fulfill their obligations to others are more likely to be normatively committed.

2.3.4 Perceived organizational support

The organizational support simply refers to the employee – employer relationship (Eisenberger et al., 1986). They include among others, the extent to which employees perceive their organizations are willing to provide them with special support, assistance, and equipment to complete their tasks and work assignments. POS refers to employees' perception concerning the extent to which the organization values their contribution and

cares about their well being. POS has been found to have important consequences on employee performance and well-being. Employees are likely to reciprocate positively in the work behaviors and attitudes when they perceive their management supports and values them (Eisenberger et al., 1986, Eisenberger Wong and Tay 427 et al., 1990). Howes et al. (2000) reveal that organizational support is related to the organizational commitment and turnover intention of employees.

Organizational support theory (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1995) holds that in order to meet socio-emotional needs and to assess the benefits of increased work effort, employees form a general perception concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being. Employees who are emotionally committed to the organization show heightened performance, reduced absenteeism, and a lessened likelihood of quitting their job (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Therefore, perceived organizational support can be considered as one of the determinant of organizational commitment and loyalty. Conversely, employees are more concerned with the organization's commitment to them. Social exchange theorists have mentioned briefly about employment as the trade of effort and loyalty for tangible benefits and social rewards (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Mowday et al., 1982; Organ & Konovsky, 1989). When one person treats another well, the reciprocity norm obliges the return of favorable treatment; as long as the employer and the employee apply this reciprocity norm to their relationship, the outcomes shall be beneficial to both. POS is also valued as assurance that aid will be available from the organization when it is needed to carry out one's job effectively and to deal with stressful situations (George, Reed, Ballard, Colin, & Fielding, 1993).

Greenberg (1990) identified that fairness of the ways used to determine the distribution of resources among employees is dealt by procedural justice. He has indicated equal distribution of resources as the tools for the motivating the employees which they perceive as organizational support for them. Shore and Shore (1995) too repeated same instances of fairness in decisions concerning resource distribution should have a strong cumulative effect on POS by indicating a concern for employees' welfare. While Kottke

& Sharafinski (1988) claim that perceives organizational support will be there if there is enough support from the supervisors. Employees, while forming global perceptions concerning their valuation by the organization, develop general views concerning the degree to which supervisors value their contributions and care about their well-being. Supervisors act as organizational agents, the employee's receipt of favorable treatment from a supervisor should contribute to POS. The strength of this relationship depends on the degree to which employees identify the supervisor with the organization, as opposed to viewing the supervisor's actions as idiosyncratic (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Shore & Shore (1995) stresses on organizational rewards and job conditions as the motivating factors POS. Human resources practices showing recognition of employee contributions will be positively related to POS. A variety of rewards and job conditions have been studied in relation to POS—for example, recognition, pay, promotions, job security, autonomy, role stressors, and training.

2.3.5 Job Promotion

Promotion is a way of rewarding the employees for meeting the organizational goals thus it serves as a mean of synchronizing organizational goals with personal goals (Lazear & Rosen, 1981). Promotion is said to be happened when an employee makes a shift in the upward direction in organizational hierarchy and moves to a place of greater responsibility (Dessler, 2008). Promotion follows a defined set pattern which is outlined in the employment bond (Doeringer & Piore, 1971). According to Rosen (1982) the deciding factor for the position of any individual in the hierarchy is his talent, higher the level of talent in any individual higher will be his position in the hierarchy. Similarly according to Carmichael (1983) promotion enhances the yield of an organization when an employee climbs a promotion ladder on the basis of his seniority and resultantly he gets an increased wage rate. However, Baker et al. (1988), claim that promotion does not consider being an incentive device, thus the optimal results cannot be generated by promoting the employee in the organization. There is a more failure rate when the employees are hired externally than when they are promoted internally (Kelly-Radford, 2001).

Murphy (1985) link concept of promotion with wages. Murphy (1985) Promotion has its importance due to the fact that it carries with it a significant change in the wage package of an employee. In similar study Baker et al., (1994) explained that raise in salary indicates the value of promotion (Promotion can help the competing firms to trace the most productive participant of one organization to be worth hiring for another organization Bernhardt & Scoones (1993). The impact of wage raise, a result of promotion, is found to be more significant than fixed income on job satisfaction (Clark & Oswald 1996). According to Shields and Ward (2001) the employees who are dissatisfied with the opportunity available for promotion show a greater intention to leave the organization. Pergamit and Veum (1989) established that greater the chances of promotion higher will be the job satisfaction of employees. Apart from job satisfaction, the employee satisfaction is determined by satisfaction with promotion. When employees perceive that there are golden chances for promotion they feel satisfied for the respective place in the organization De Souza, (2002).

Pergamit and Veum (1989) find a positive correlation between promotions and job satisfaction. Francesconi (2001) analyzes the effects of promotions on changes in job satisfaction using British household data. In another study using British household data, Clark (1996) includes a dummy variable indicating whether the respondent believes she has opportunities for promotion as an explanatory variable. In an organization incentives can be used as a promotion. It is a way of rewarding the employees for meeting the organizational goals thus it can serves a mean to achieve personal goals and with organizational goals (Lazear & Rosen, 1981). According to Rosen (1982) the deciding factor for the position of any individual in the hierarchy is his talent, higher the level of talent in any individual higher will be his position in the hierarchy. Promotion has its importance due to the fact that it carries with it a significant change in the wage package of an employee (Murphy, 1985). Thus, a raise in salary indicates the value of promotion (Baker et al., 1994). For promotion in an organisation an employee bond is prepared by employer and is signed by an employee at the time of employment with a defined set pattern (Doeringer & Piore, 1971). In this extremely competitive corporate world, promotion can be used as one of the tools for competing firms in tracing the most productive participant of one organization to be worth hiring for other different

organization (Bernhardt & Scoones, 1993). In such a way the promotion highlights an employee in the external environment and realizes his worth in the internal environment.

To get more challenging work and career development opportunities, employees require training and promotion within their organizations. Evidence shows that receipt of a promotion from current employer is associated with receipt of training and with job/work satisfaction (Pergamit & Veum, 1999). So although employers are reluctant to train, they promote those whom they have trained! And promotions that give employees more challenging work, increase job/work satisfaction, which in turn reduces turnover. Satisfied employees have been shown to have higher levels of attendance, cooperation, service quality, and creativity in seeking new work methods (Balzer, et al, 1997). Some companies use pay increases to signify promotion – that is they raise pay without changing the nature or duties of the job/work (Pergamit & Veum, 1999). Research has shown that if women (minorities) perceive a pay or promotion disparity, they are more likely than men (Caucasians) to look outside their current employer for a better job, rather than stay and “fight for a raise or promotion”(Wells, 2001).

2.3.6 Career Growth

Career is the unfolding sequence of a person’s work experiences over time (Arthur, Hall, & Lawrence, 1989). This definition insists on the relevance of time, rather than adopting any static view of work arrangements. Thus career growth is an outcome of a person’s career experiences. The employment context in which careers evolve is rapidly changing defines Arthur & Rousseau (1996). Career is the contemporary employment contexts call for careers to be more boundaries less. To reflect a ‘new deal’ that has the career actor more concerned with independent rather than organizational goals Cappelli (1999), and to involve the kind of ‘meta competencies’ that allow for easier mobility between successive employers Hall (2002). There is evidence that people who exhibit boundary less career behavior report considerably higher levels of career success Eby, Butts, & Lockwood (2003).

The career growth is the individual’s own sense of his or her career and what it is becoming Stebbins (1970). On the other hand there are objective careers, reflecting the

more or less publicly observable positions, situations, and status 'that serve as landmarks for gauging a person's movement through the social milieu' Barley, (1989) Career as a path implies a route which one is following, having a direction or a purpose that links the successive positions over time (Adamson et al., 1998). As managers are moving away from single employment settings, career paths are no longer unidirectional up the hierarchical ladder. It is no longer apparent how an overall career path can be logical and purposeful because career moves can be upwards, downwards, forwards, backwards, sideways or idiosyncratic (Baruch, 2004; Inkson, 2004). The multi-directional nature of a career path implies that the notion of internal career or the subjective sense of where one is going in work life (Schein, 1996) Chang (1999), individuals who seek career growth have higher expectations for career growth opportunities within their organizations. To the degree that individuals can meet their career growth needs within an organization, they are more likely to remain with that organization. Failure to meet these expectations would lead these individuals to seek employment opportunities elsewhere

Meyer et al. (1993) people who work in organizations that enable them to satisfy their needs develop a stronger positive emotion toward those organizations which results in greater psychological attachment to those organizations. Indeed, research has borne out a positive relationship between career growth practices and organizational commitment (Chang, 1999; Weng et al., 2010). Conversely, organizations that fail to provide career need satisfaction opportunities make the prospects of employment elsewhere more attractive. Salamin and Hom (2005) people who perceive little progress toward meeting their career goals or few opportunities for professional ability development in their current jobs and/or who feel under rewarded by the organization in terms of promotional opportunities or compensation, have little to lose by leaving that organization.

2.3.7 Work stress

'Stress arises when individuals perceive that they cannot adequately cope with the demands being made on them or with threats to their well-being' Lazarus, Psychological Stress and the Coping Process (1966). In this definition the only factor demand and its consequences is taken as the cause for stress on employees. The inability to adjust the unnecessary demand leads to the stress situation to the employees. Stress can only be

sensibly defined as a perceptual phenomenon arising from a comparison between the demand on the person and his or her ability to cope. An imbalance in this mechanism, when coping is important, gives rise to the experience of stress, and to the stress response Cox, Stress, 1978. Stress results from an imbalance between demands and resources' Lazarus & Folkman, Stress, Appraisal and Coping, 1984.

The Health and Safety Executive (HSE) defines stress as an 'adverse reaction people have to excessive pressures or other types of demand placed on them'. Work-related stress is thus understood to occur when there is a mismatch between the demands of the job and the resources and capabilities of the individual worker to meet those demands. This definition emphasizes the relationship between individuals and their working environment, and helps to explain why a situation that one person regards as a stimulating challenge causes another to experience a damaging degree of stress. The success depends on a long-term and dedicated commitment on the part of the organization, according to Dr. Michael Baime, professor of Stress Management. "If changes are to be made to reduce costly stress in the workplace, employers must truly value the health as well as the productivity of their workers," he says. "Additionally, the strategy must be a dual approach of organizational changes and encouraging individuals to learn to manage their stress, no matter what the source."

A 2007 Euro-found report on work-related stress; Stress occurs in many different circumstances, but is particularly strong when a person's ability to control the demands of work is threatened. Insecurity about successful performance and fear of negative consequences resulting from performance failure may evoke powerful negative emotions of anxiety, anger and irritation. The stressful experience is intensified if no help is available from colleagues or supervisors at work. Therefore, social isolation and lack of cooperation increase the risk of prolonged stress at work. Conversely, work tasks with a high degree of personal control and skill variety, and a work environment with supportive social relationships; contribute to workers' wellbeing and health.

A report by the National Association of Mental Health confirms that the individual worker's 'personality and coping strategy' can have direct, moderating or perceptual effects on stress outcomes. For example, an extroverted person might find a socially

isolating job more stressful than an introverted person, who conversely, might find a job with greater levels of social interaction more difficult and stressful.

HSE has identified six categories of potential work stress:

Demands: working conditions, shift work, long or unsociable hours, workload.

Control: job autonomy; low levels of job control

Relationships: with superiors, subordinates and colleagues

Change: introduced, managed and communicated to staff

Role: unclear role understanding, role conflict, roles ambiguity

Support: support and job training, encouragement, sponsorship and resources

Like HSE's explanation NIOSH Director Linda Rosenstock has explained stress in the similar dimensions. Work stress imposes enormous and far-reaching costs on workers wellbeing and corporate profitability. Research and experience tell that certain factors, such as a heavy workload, conflicting or uncertain job responsibilities and job insecurity are stressors across organizations and that the risk for job stress can be reduced through smart, strategic action. All the above stresses occur in the working settings. Until and unless these kinds of stresses are absent within an organization the question of quitting job is very low.

2.3.8 Company Reputation

Company reputation is 'a perceptual representation of a company's past actions and future prospects that describe the firm's appeal to all of its key constituents' Fombrun (1996). Company reputation is a psychological factor that comes from inner state of mind regarding the company from the angle of its stakeholders. Fombrun further explain it is a collective and multidimensional construct which is an aggregated perception of many individuals to the organization. Therefore, an organization does not have a single reputation – it has many. From the research conducted by Fombrun and his team found,

‘image’ is distinguished as the outsider’s perception, whereas reputation includes both internal and external stakeholders.

The corporate reputation is accumulated perception of the single stakeholder; the relational school sees reputation as an equal reflection of the internal and external view of the organization (e.g. Davies and Miles 1998; Hatch and Schultz 2001). This school emphasizes differences between the views of different stakeholders but also contains the idea that internal and external views are linked. Likewise Hatch and Schultz (1997) contributed to the conceptual background of the ‘relational school’ by linking image, identity and culture. They mean to say that company reputation is all about the combo of factors like image, status, identity etc. Davies and Miles (1998) saw reputation management as the alignment between three elements, ‘how others (the customers) see ourselves’, ‘who we really are’ and ‘what we say we are’.. In a case where stakeholders have differing views of the same company, an unfavorable reputation might contaminate a favorable reputation (Carter and Deephouse 1999). Any ‘relational differences’ (Hatch and Shultz 2000) or ‘gaps’ (Davies and Miles 1998; Dowling 1994; Hatch and Shultz 2001) between the external and internal views has been seen as crucial in reputation management.

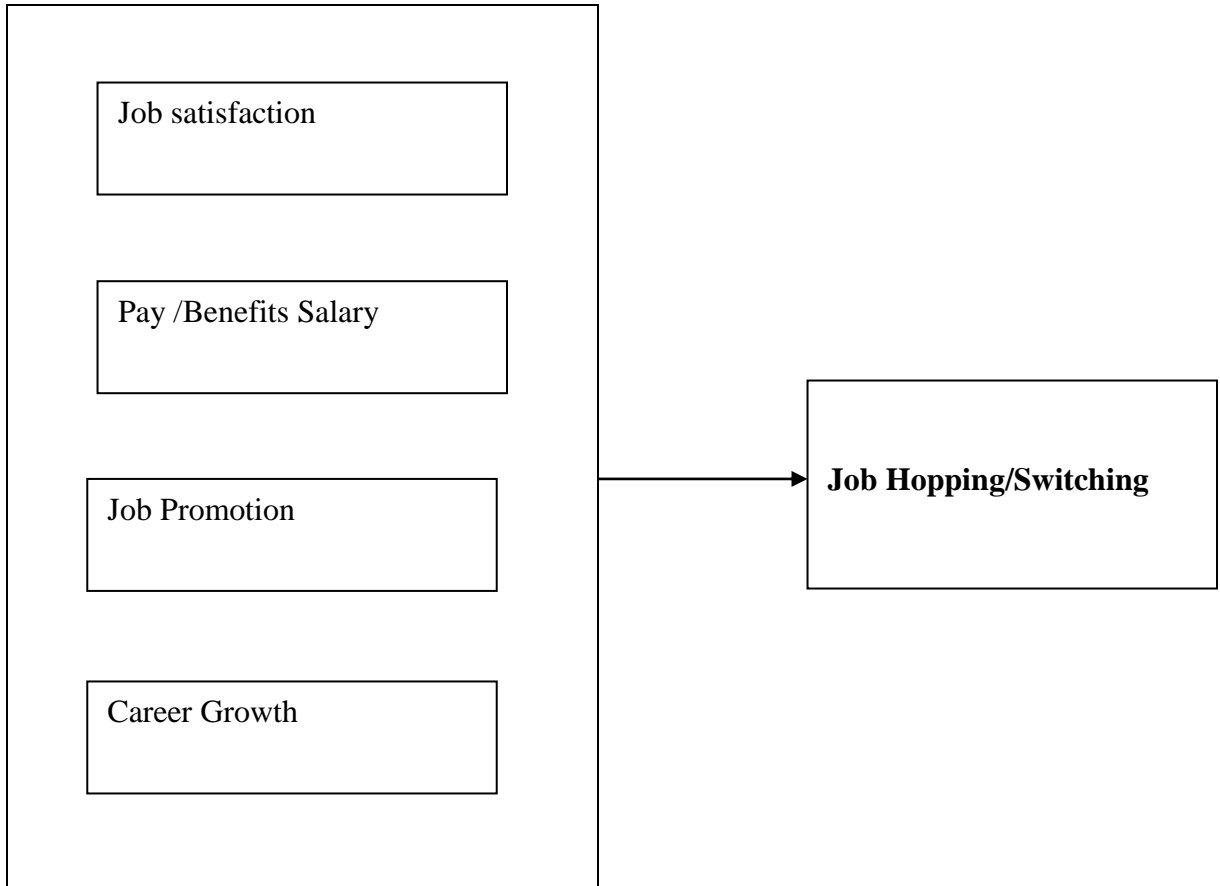
The reputation of an organization was conveyed to outsiders by managers in the organization. It is now widely accepted that corporate reputations start from the inside out (Martin, 2009a, 2009b). Chun (2005) reputation was seen as an intangible asset having financial worth, as traits or signals that influence perceptions of the organization by external stakeholders, as perceived by customers and clients, as perceptions of the organization held by internal stakeholders (employees), and as an overall perception of an organization’s performance relative to societal expectations and norms. Perceptions of corporate reputation can be internal (employees, managers), external (customers, shareholders), or both. And different stakeholders can have different perceptions of company reputation. Mangold and Miles (2007) focus on internal corporate reputation. This reputation is the extent to which employees know and understand the organization’s mission, values and desired brand image and the degree to which their psychological contract is being fulfilled. Whatever the author have said in their definition/research, in

conclusion company reputation is all about the favorable perception of internal and external member of the organization.

Thus if the employees has the positive perception towards the organization then the chances of their retention to the organization will be very high or in other sense the chances of job switching will be very low. The employees always want to be the corporate member of that organization that is highly renowned and appraised by others comparatively than other competitors. In other sense people like to engage in the branded company that has distinct identity and image in the market. Thus from all above inferences it can be predict that there will be the positive relationship between the corporate/company image and reputation.

2.4 Theoretical Framework

Independent Variables



Source: Adopted from Wong and Tay.

Figure 2.1: Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework given in Figure 2.1 outlines the relationship between Job Hopping and factors impacting the job hopping behaviors of Nepalese bankers. Job Hopping/ Switching behaviors is taken as the dependent variable whereas the factors affecting job hopping are independent variables that influences the Job switching behaviors of people working in banking sectors of Nepal.

The independent variables derived from the study of different literatures are as below:

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the level of contentment a person feels regarding their job. It has to do with the way how people feel about their job and its various aspects. In other words job satisfaction represents a combination of positive or negative feelings that workers have towards their work. So the person's hopes, desires, and expectations about the employment he/she will influence to leave or to remain with job they are involved

Pay/Benefits

Pay consists of wages and salaries received for performing work. Simply it is money or financial return given to employees for their contribution to the organization. It can be base pay and merit pay Benefits are addition to pay like pay for time not worked, protection programs, executives' benefits etc. Employees receive them as a result of their employment and position in the organization. Pay/benefits too play role in influencing the job hooping behaviors of employees.

Work Stress

Occupational stress is stress involving work. Occupational stress can occur when there is a discrepancy between the demands of the environment/workplace and an individual's ability to carry out and complete these demands. People might go for switching their job they feel workplace stress such as negative workload, isolation, extensive hours worked, toxic work environments, lack of autonomy, difficult relationships among coworkers and management, management bullying, harassment and lack of opportunities or motivation to advancement in one's skill level etc.

Employee Promotion

The advancement of an employee within a company position or job tasks. Job promotions usually include a new job title, a greater number of responsibilities and a pay increase. They might also include an expansion of benefits and managerial authority over other employees. Job promotions are usually based on performance or tenure.

Career Growth

Career growth" or "Job advancement" is a change from an entry level position to a job which has more duties and that receives more compensation. Whenever there is a chance of being promoted to a position which has greater authority, more decision making, and the possibility of supervising other employees or work independence then job hopping activities might occur.

Similarly the dependent variable involved in the theoretical framework is discussed as below:

Job Hopping/Switching

Job hopping is a pattern of changing companies every year or two of one's own volition rather than as a result of something like a layoff or company closure. It is practice of changing jobs frequently, especially as a means of quick financial gain or career advancement. Job mobility decision is affected by the factors like job satisfaction, job promotion, pay/ benefits, work stress, company reputation and so on. Especially in Nepalese banking sectors these factors are most common leading to the bankers change their job frequently.

Chapter III

Research Design and Methodology

3.1 Research Plan and Design

The study has been conducted with the objective of investigating the job hopping behaviors of Nepalese bankers and determining the likely impacts of factors leading to the job hopping. Therefore the findings of the study would give the information regarding job hopping situation and its major determinants in the banking sector in Nepal. This chapter describes the sampling process, sample characteristics, instrument development, content reliability, pre-test, statistical analysis plan, data and overall methodology undertaken for the purpose of this research.

The survey was conducted by taking the responses from the bankers working in different banks through questionnaire method. Related secondary data is collected and analyzed from literature and previous research to verify the hypotheses. Self-administered questionnaire were distributed to the respondents to obtain primary data. The research study was quantitative study. It investigates the impact of factors affecting on job hopping/switching. Thus the goal of this study was to examine the relationship between job hopping and its determinants in the banking sectors of Nepal.

3.2 Type of Study

The nature of this study was descriptive study. The hypothesis testing explains the relationship between job hopping and its determinants. This study was conducted through a survey with structured questionnaire because questionnaire is an efficient data collection mechanism.

This study used various statistical tests such as correlation, regression, mean, standard deviation and etc. The software called Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) and Microsoft Excel was used to analyze and interpret the quantitative data, this software is

commonly used by researchers and easily available in business settings. The reliability of scales is analyzed using Cronbach's alpha since Cronbach's alpha test is best used for multipoint-scale items and it is also the most popular test for inter-item consistency reliability (Cavana, Delahaye & Sekaran, 2003).

3.3 Sample Description

3.3.1 Population

All Nepalese bank employees were considered as the total population. The research studies the Job switching behavior of the people from commercial bank of Nepal. Therefore, the population of the study is the bankers from the major banks like Standard Chartered, Nabil, Nepal Investment, KIST, Sanima, Janata bank etc.

3.3.2 Sample Size

The population was specifically defined. It consisted of those people working at commercial banks of Nepal. The total sample size taken for the study was 105 respondents. This sample includes executives and non-executives of the Nepalese commercial banks. For data collection one the non probabilistic sampling techniques; convenience sampling has been used. Convenience sampling was appropriate for this research because this technique is best way to reach to the respondents; similarly due to the resource constraint- time and money. This sampling technique generally assumes a homogeneous population that means the members of the population poses similar characteristics. This sample of the study represents the whole population of the study.

3.4 Sources of Data

3.4.1 Primary Sources

In order to collect reliable and valid information, relevant questionnaires were prepared and distributed among the respondents who worked in different banks in Nepal.

Especially, the targeted respondents were those who have worked more than one organization/bank.

3.4.2 Secondary Data Sources

This study also has used several secondary data while collecting required information. The sources of the secondary data include books, literatures, data from government and non-governmental sources, internet search, articles, and journals and so on. This has helped identify how others have defined and measured key concepts, their findings and the data sources they have used. Use of these sources has also helped to discover the relevant information and also revealed how this research project is related to other studies.

3.5 Pilot Study

Small pilot study was conducted using the survey questionnaires over a selected group of 10 respondents from 3 commercial banks before conducting the major survey over the sample population. Most of the set questionnaires were on multiple choice forms which were modified to Likert scale form after the pilot study for the more accurate result and convenient of the respondents. Likewise some unnecessary questionnaires were removed completely from the set and some were amended using the simplified and concrete words to avoid confusion after the pilot study. And finally the questionnaires were kept in orders as per the dependent and independent variables.

3.6 Data Collection Instrument

Questionnaires were used as data collection instrument. A close end questionnaire was developed with 5- item questionnaire was used to study job hopping (dependent variable) and 27- item questionnaire was used to study determinants of job hopping (independent variable). The questions were designed to make the purpose of the study successful after the results have been ascertained. This questionnaire was designed in such a way that it would give expected information according to the research topic.

3.7 Administration of Instruments

The questionnaires were distributed to the respondents through e-mails and the printed sets where applicable. The printed sets distributed to some respondents were collected after it has been fulfilled. The purpose of the study was properly defined to every respondent on the questionnaire page so that the respondents would understand why this research was being done. This also avoided any suspicion, biases and motivated them to provide their independent opinions on the questions asked. Moreover, to have valid and reliable data, questions were well formulated considering the easiness and understandability and avoiding any vague and double meaning words so that the respondent could easily answer the given questions without any confusion and help minimize any error. Furthermore the questionnaire is divided into mainly two parts. The first part contains demographic profile. This is collected for statistical use, to prepare respondents' profile. The next part contains the questions which were used to measure dependent and independent variables. The parts of questionnaire are illustrated in the table as below:

Part	Content
Part A	Demographic Profile
Part B	Job satisfaction, Pay/ benefits, Job promotion and Career growth

Table 3.1 Questionnaire Design

3.8 Measurement

The personal demographic questions were asked to the respondents to prepare the respondents' profile. The job switching behaviors was assessed with four dimensions. There were 5 items for job switching and 27 items for purchase decision. All questions related to independent variables were evaluated on a five- point Likert scale. But for job switching related questions are in both Likert scale and multiple choice question form.

3.9 Validity and Reliability

Reliability means the consistency between measurements in a series. For establishing reliability of the study, the questionnaire was developed carefully along with use of correct word and meaning. A pilot study was conducted for pre-test among certain number of respondents to detect any kind of misunderstanding in the question. Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was also calculated to identify the reliability of the instruments used. After the data collection from the respondents Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was also calculated to identify the reliability of the instruments used.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	No. of Items
.929	29

Table 3.2 Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients

Reliability statistics is typically associated with internal consistency and its value ranges from 0 to 1. Sekaran (2000) stated that Cronbach's Alpha coefficient less than 0.6 are considered poor, greater than 0.6 but less than 0.8 are considered acceptable and greater than 0.8 are considered good. Table 3.2 shows the Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the questionnaire asked to respondents, which is above 0.8, which means the reliability of the instrument used is good.

Similarly, for establishing the validity, the questionnaire was prepared under the guidance of an expert who oversaw the questionnaire making process and helped the researcher to come with a standard set of questions in such a way that items on questionnaire cover the full range issues relevant to the phenomenon that researcher is studying.

3.10 Data Analysis

The collected data has been statistically analyzed using software such as the Statistical Package Social Sciences Software (SPSS) and Microsoft Excel were used. SPSS is analytical and scientific software used to organize the data, determine significant relationships and identify difference, similarities with and between different categories of respondents. For this research purpose descriptive statistics, reliability analysis,

correlation analysis and regression analysis were performed in order to accomplish the objectives of the study. The data analysis included the following:

- The establishment of Cronbach's Alpha for the reliability of the instrument used
- Demographic Profile of Respondent
- The frequency distribution for several of the measures
- Measures of Central Tendency and Dispersion
- Pearson Correlation Hypothesis testing

Chapter IV

Results and Discussion

The purpose of this chapter is to analyze and interpret the data collected during the study and present the results of the questionnaire survey. The main objective of this research study is expected to be fulfilled with the outcomes derived from the analysis of the data. This chapter also covers the test of hypotheses which were formulated in the previous chapter. This section is further sub-divided into two section sub-sections. The first part deals with the respondents' profile. It gives demographic information about the respondents such as gender, marital status, age, academic qualification and job designation etc. The second part analyzes and interprets the collected data through correlation of dependent and independent variables. And the final part is the discussion of the results obtained through analysis.

4.1 Respondents' Profile

This section deals with the demographic analysis and interpretation of primary data collected through questionnaires. This helps to get insight into the demographic characteristics of the respondents under study. The respondents' profile includes gender, marital status, educational qualification, age-group, and job position. Out of the 115 questionnaire send to the potential respondents only 105 respondents give their response to the questionnaire. Hence, the response rate was ninety one percent. All the respondents were the bankers working the commercial bank inside the Kathmandu Valley.

4.1.1 Gender of Respondents

Gender	No. of Respondents	Percent (%)
Male	57	54.3
Female	48	45.7
Total	105	100

Table 4.1: Gender of Respondents

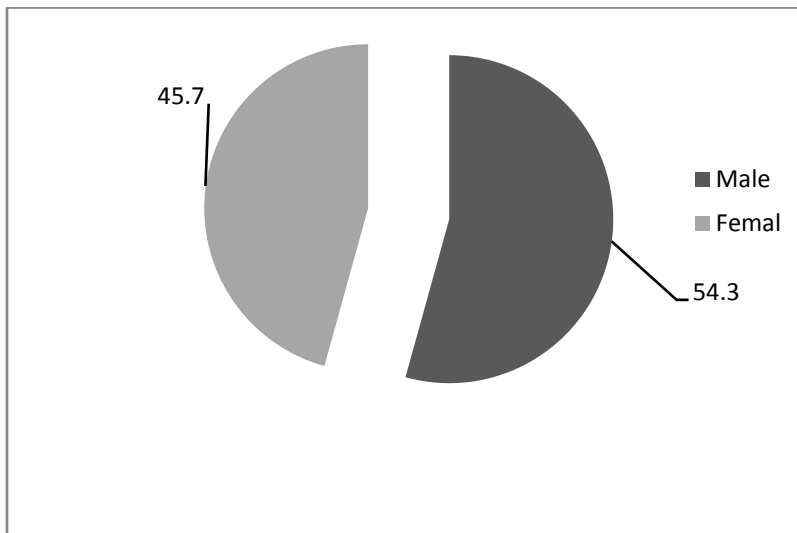


Figure 4.1: Gender of Respondents

Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1 show the gender distribution of the respondents. The number of male respondents was 57 and that of female respondents 48. The percentage of male respondent was 54.3% and that of female respondent was 45.7%. The aim of the research was to make the sample size equal but the independent selection brought out slight difference in the number of male and female respondents.

4.1.2 Marital Status

Marital Status	No. of Respondents	Percent (%)
Unmarried	72	68.6
Married	33	31.4
Total	105	100

Figure 4.2: Marital Status of Respondents

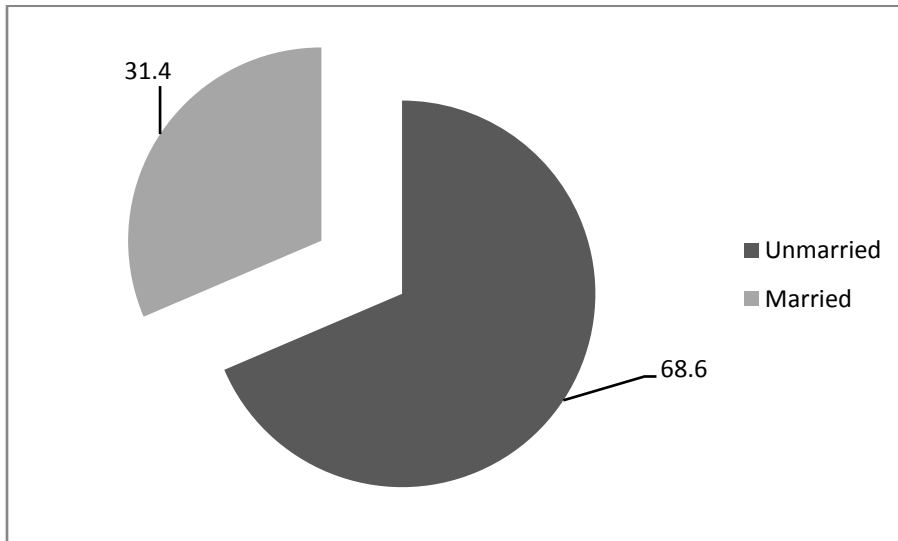


Table 4.2: Marital Status of Respondents

Table 4.2 and Figure 4.2 show the marital status of the respondents. It has been found that the number of unmarried respondents is greater than that of married respondents. Unmarried respondents are 72 in number which represents 68.6% and married respondents are 33 in number that represents 31.4% of total respondents.

4.1.3 Age group of Respondents

Age Group	No. of respondents
Below 25	19
25-35	82
35-45	3
45-55	1
Total	105

Table 4.3: Age group of Respondents

Table 4.3 and Figure 4.3 show the age group of the respondents, where majority of them represented 25-35 years age group. Out of total respondents 82 represents this age group. Similarly, 19 respondents were from below 25 years age group and 3 respondents represent 35-45 age group. While age group 45-55 represented by just 1 respondent. Higher number of respondents represented from 25-35 years age group shows that this age is higher in number working in banks.

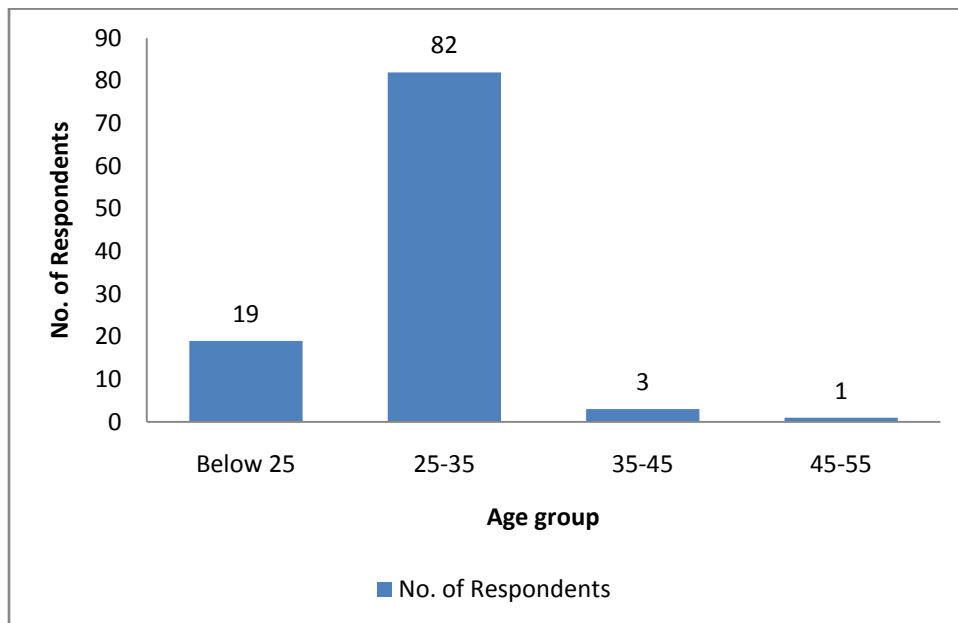


Figure 4.3: Age group of Respondents

4.1.4 Academic Qualification of Respondents

Qualifications	No. of Respondents
Intermediate	4
Bachelor	48
Masters	52
Ph.D	0
Others	1
Total	105

Figure 4.4: Academic qualifications of the respondents

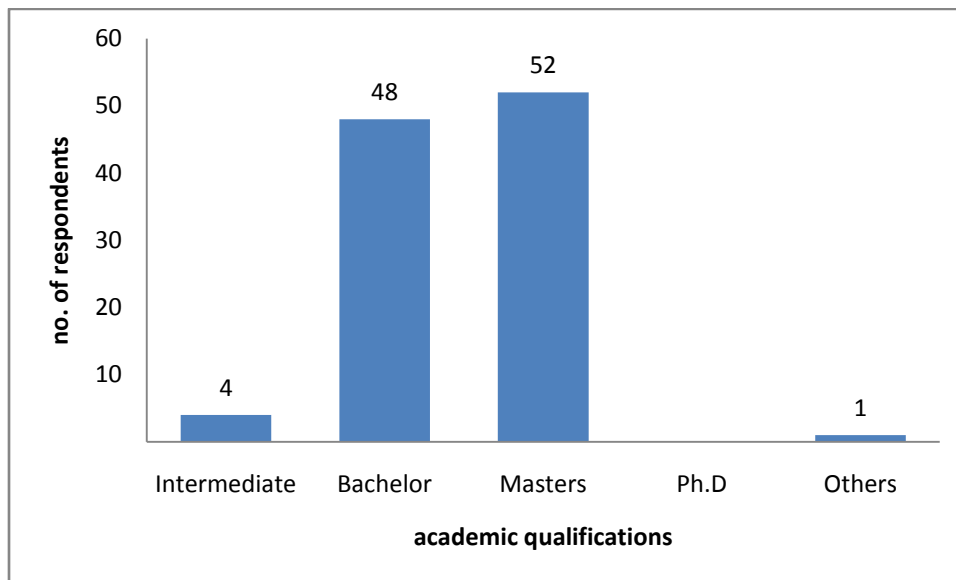


Figure 4.4 Academic Qualifications of Respondents

Table 4.4 and Figure 4.4 show the educational qualification of the respondents. Majority of the respondents falls within the master's level category that is 52 respondents and then 48 respondents are in bachelor's level category. In intermediate level 4 respondents comes under. None of the respondents belongs to Ph. D level and one of the respondents has done CA.

4.1.5 Job Designation

Job Designation	No. of Respondents	Percent
Executive	15	14.3
Non-executive	90	85.7
Total	105	100

Figure 4.5: Job Designations of Respondents

Table 4.5 and Figure 4.5 show job designation of the respondents. The respondents with non executive job designation represent 85.7% and the respondents with executive job position represent only 14.3% of the total sample of 105 respondents.

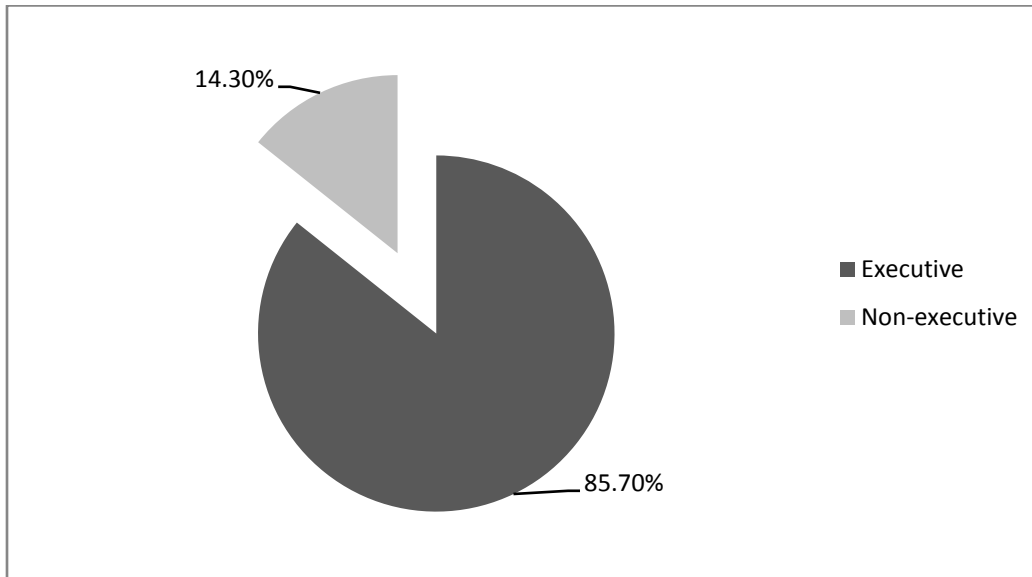


Figure 4.5: Job Designation of Respondents

4.1.6 Job Tenure

Job Time	No. of Respondents
Below 1 year	18
1-2 year	21
2-3 year	25
3 & above	41
Total	105

Table 4.6: Job Tenure of the respondents

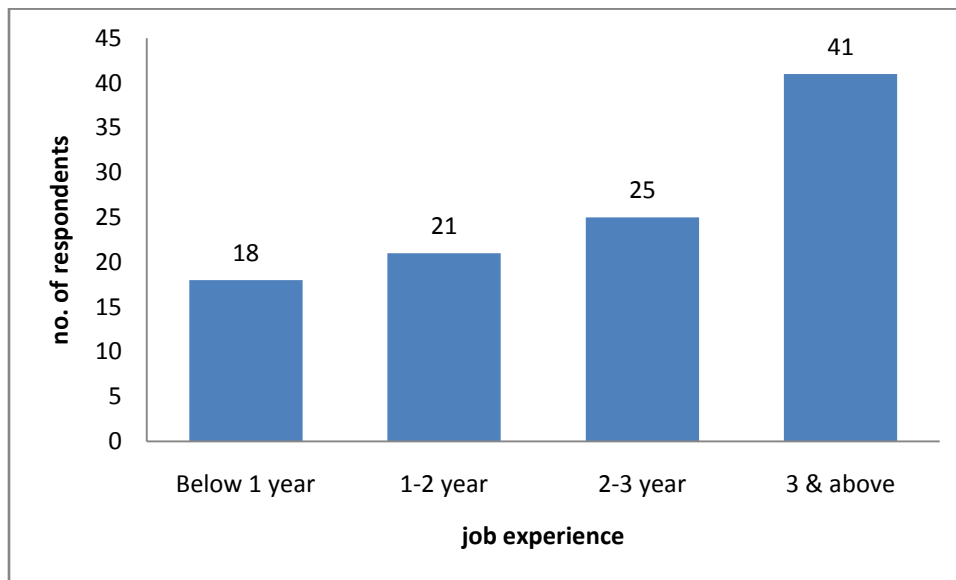


Figure 4.6: Job Tenure of the respondents

Table 4.6 and Figure 4.6 show the job tenure of the respondents. This question represents the how much time the respondents have spent in their respective banks. Out of 105 respondents majority i.e. 41 of them responded that they have spent 3 and above years in their bank and in 25 respondents said that they have work for 2-3 years in their respective organization. Similarly 21 respondents work for 1-2 years and remaining 18 has worked below 1 year to their current bank.

4.1.7 Job Hopping as Personal Choice

Job Hopping (Personal Choice)	No. of Respondents	Percent
Yes	95	89.5%
No	10	9.5%
Total	105	100

Table 4.7: Job hopping as personal choice

Table 4.7 and Figure 4.7 explicit the responses of the bankers to the question that is related to whether the job switching is their personal choice or not. 89.5 % of them claim that job switching is their personal choice whereas remaining 9.5 % said it is mandatory for them to change their job.

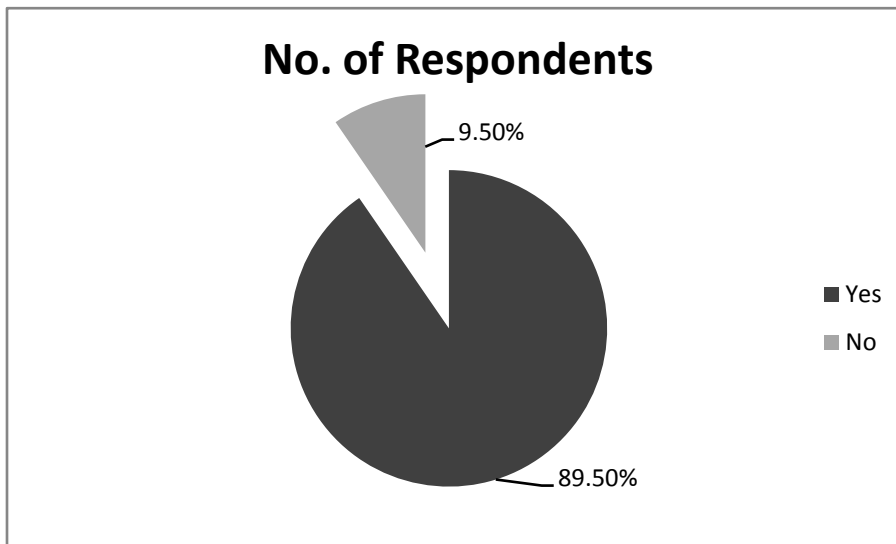


Figure 4.7: Job hopping as personal choice

4.1.8 Recruiters prefers to non job hoppers than frequent job switchers

Recruiters prefers to non job hoppers	No. of Respondents
Strongly Disagree	7
Disagree	24
Neither Disagree/Agree	26
Agree	37
Strongly Agree	11
Total	105

Table 4.8: Recruiters preference to non job switchers

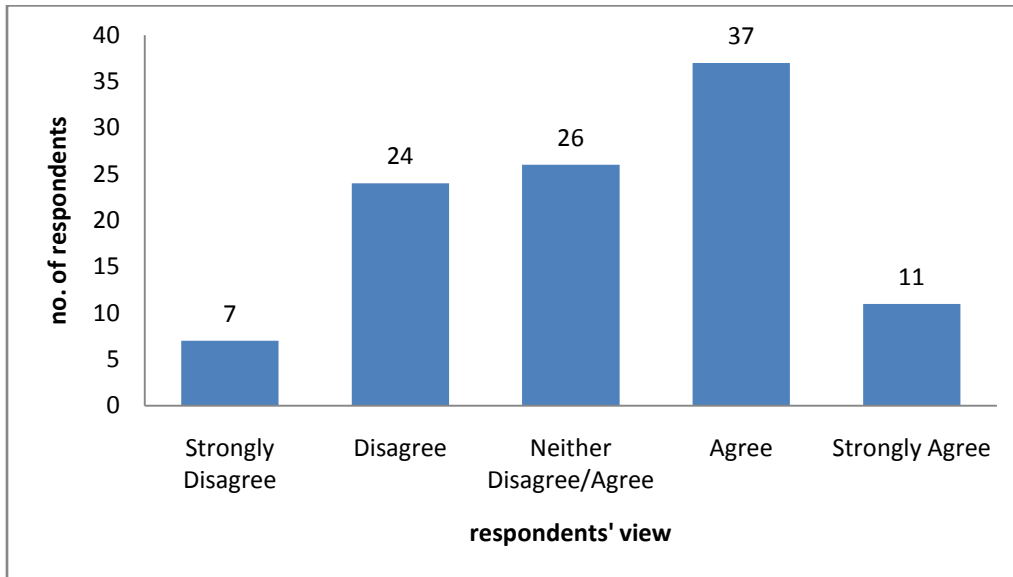


Figure 4.8: Recruiters preference to non job switchers

Table 4.8 and Figure 4.8 show the view of respondents regarding the recruiters hire those employees who stay longer time than those who are frequent job switchers. Among the 105 respondents, 37 of them responded that they were agreed with the statement. And 11 of them claim that they strongly support the statement. Whereas 24 of them disagree, 26 were neutral and 7 were strongly disagreed with the question.

4.1.9 Job as a common trend

Job hopping a common trend	No. of Respondents
Strongly Disagree	1
Disagree	8
Neither Disagree/Agree	11
Agree	62
Strongly Agree	23
Total	105

Table 4.9: Job hopping as common trend

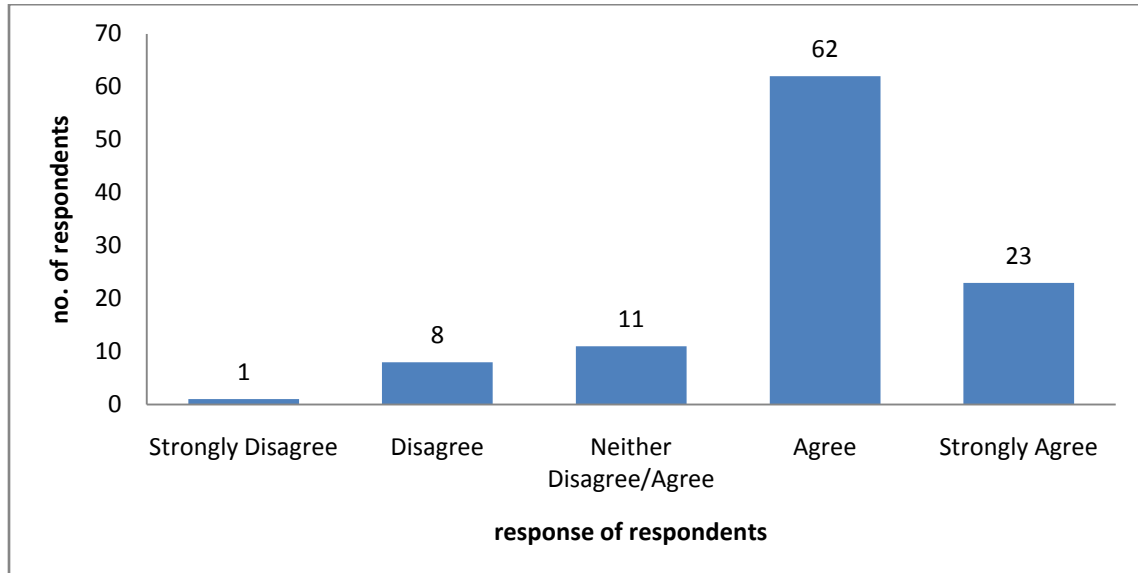


Figure 4.9: Job hopping as common trend

From Table 4.2 and Figure 4.2 it can be inferred that 62 respondents and 23 respondents agree and strongly agree with the statement that job hopping is common trend. While 8 respondents shared that they disagree and 1 of them strongly disagree the above question. However 11 bankers were in neutral side.

4.1.10 Job change within next two years

Job Change in next two years	No. of Respondents
Yes	66.70%
No	33.33%
Total	100

Table 4.10: Job switching within next two years

Table 4.1 shows the job switching intention of the respondents in coming two years. It shows that the 66.7% of the participant agreed that they will switch towards another banks in coming two years while remaining 33.33% said they will not move to new bank. The data is diagrammatically shown in the figure 4.10 using the Pie-Chart.

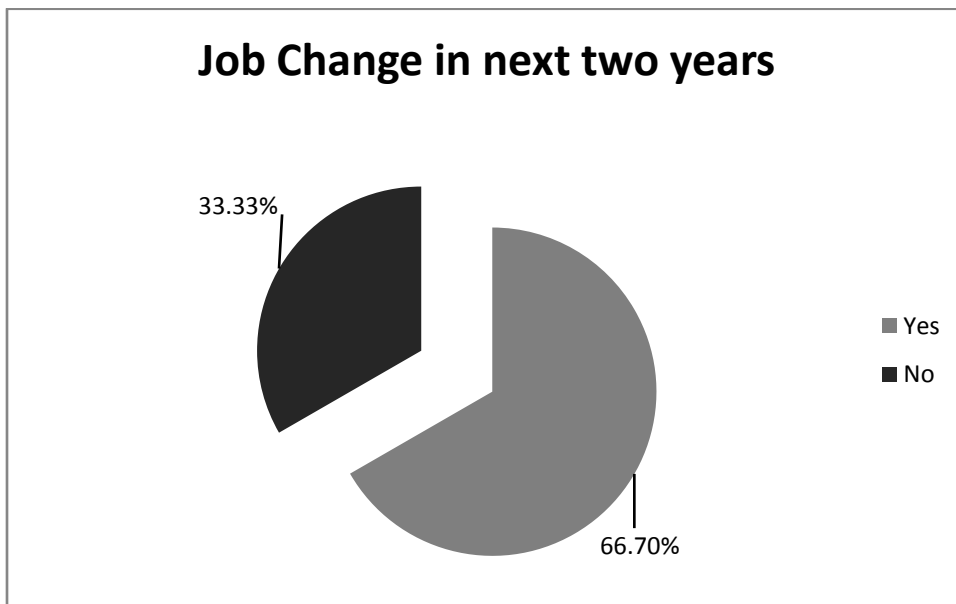


Figure 4.10: Job switching within next two years

4.2 Descriptive Analysis

This section deals with the descriptive analysis of the data collected through the questionnaires during the research process. Descriptive analysis incorporates calculation of statistical measures such as mean, standard deviation, including maximum and minimum values. These values help researcher to analyze the data with respect to

frequencies and aggregation relating to research questions and variables. For this purpose, five “Five Point Likert Scale” questions were asked to the respondents which scaled from 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (disagree), 3 (neutral), 4 (agree) to 5 (strongly agree). Number of respondents in each question item was 105.

Here job hopping has been measured through its four dimensions, job satisfaction, pay/salary, job promotion and career growth. Questions related to each dimensions and their descriptive statistic are shown below.

4.2.1 Descriptive study of job hoping factors

	Job Satisfaction	Salary/Pay	Job Promotion	Career Growth
Mean	2.48	2.58	2.79	2.11
Std. Deviation	1.153	1.072	.937	1.195
Minimum	1	1	1	1
Maximum	4	4	4	4

Table 4.11: Descriptive study of job switching factors

Table 4.11 shows the ranking given by the respondents to the factors leading job hopping. Rank was given on the basis of value of 1 for most important while 4 for least important factor. In the given Table 4.11, career growth has mean value of 2.11 which implies that career growth is highly important factors that lead to job switching among bankers. After career growth, there comes job satisfaction in second position with mean value of 2.48 so job satisfaction is another major factor after career growth responsible for job change. Similarly, salary/pay has mean value of 2.58 and job promotion has got 2.79, this shows job promotion is least important factors leading to job switching in banking sectors of Nepal. Hence, career growth is the most critical factor as it scored highest mean value of 2.11.

4.2.1.1 Frequency Analysis of job hoping factors

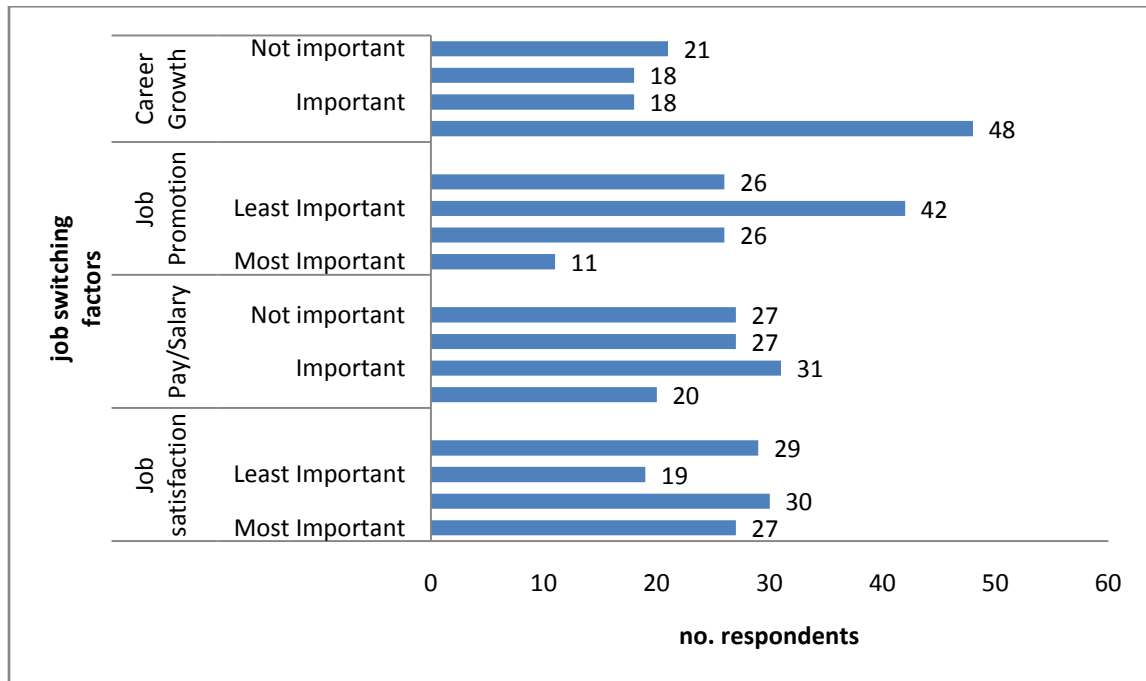


Figure 4.11: Frequency analysis of job switching factors

From Figure 4.11 it can be inferred that among the 105 respondents, 30 respondents said that job satisfaction is important factor for bankers to switch their job where as 19 of them claim that job satisfaction is least important for their job switching. In case of pay/salary, 31 respondents believed that it is important for their job switching where as 20 of them said that it's most important factors leading to their job change. While considering Job promotion 42 feels that it's least important for them but 11 of them said it's most important. On the other hand, 48 respondent claims that career growth is most important job switching factor while 18 of them find it just important for them to change their job.

4.2.2 Descriptive Analysis of Job satisfaction

	Less Interesting	Poor working condition	Less Communication	Less Information	Job Discrimination	Recognition	Less Supervisor Support	Job Security
Mean	2.95	3.02	2.84	3.13	3.36	2.84	3.30	2.81
Std. Dev	1.228	1.143	1.249	1.101	1.178	1.186	1.324	1.366
Min	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Max	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5

Table 4.12: Descriptive Analysis of Job satisfaction

Table 4.12 shows the descriptive statistics of job satisfaction factor of job switching. In the table, all the headings represent the sub factors related to the job satisfaction. The job security scored mean value of 2.81 which is the lowest among the other factors. This means one of the most reasons behind people being dissatisfied from their job is due to the less job security poses by their job. After less job security, there comes less recognition to contribution, less communication and less interesting work with mean score of 2.84, 2.84 and 2.95 respectively which are medium mean score among other factors. Likewise, the highest mean scoring of 3.63 was of discrimination at work so in this study most of the respondents put less emphasis on job discrimination at work for their job dissatisfaction. Thus, for employees to be dissatisfied with their job less job security poses main role whereby job discrimination plays least role.

4.2.2.1 Frequency analysis of Job satisfaction

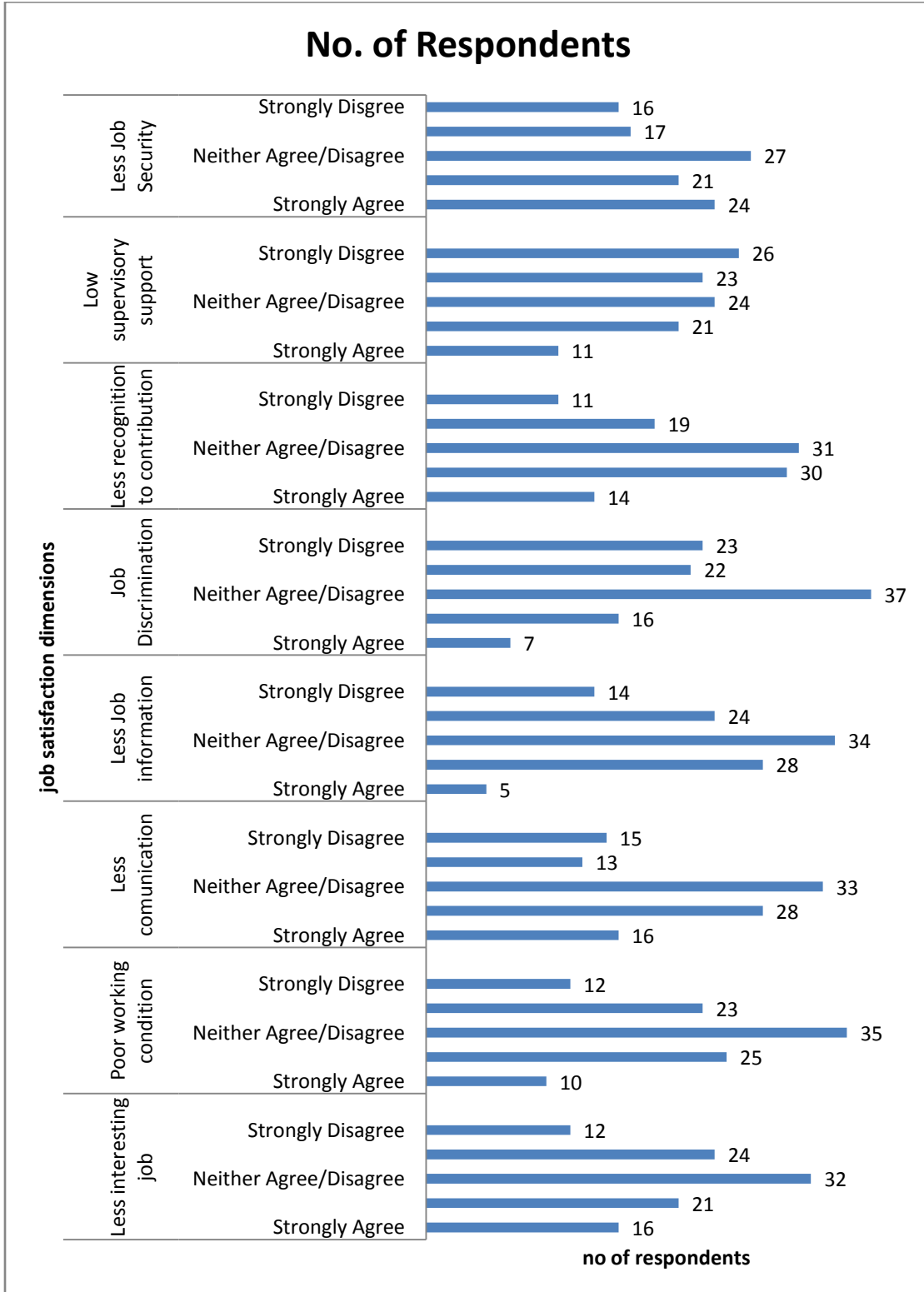


Figure 4.12: Frequency analysis of Job satisfaction

Figure 4.12 shows that, 32 respondents said that they will be neutral to the statement that less interesting job will make them dissatisfied with their job. Whereas just 12 respondents strongly disagreed that less interesting does not have negative impact on their job satisfaction level. At the same time 35 respondents too are neutral to the statement that poor working condition make them job dissatisfaction but for the same statement 10 of them strongly agreed. Similarly, majority of respondents remain in neutral point in case of the statement saying less communication, less job information, job discrimination, less job security and less recognition to contribution leading to job dissatisfaction. However, in case of less supervisory support 26 respondents claim that they strongly disagree that it leads to job dissatisfaction, but 11 people have opposite views that they accept that less supervisory support direct them towards job dissatisfactions.

4.2.3 Descriptive analysis of Pay/Salary

	Pay Satisfaction	Performance Basis	Pay Fairness	Allowances Inadequate	Pay Insecure	Pay Insufficient
Mean	2.67	2.76	2.94	2.88	3.02	2.82
Std. Deviation	1.320	1.311	1.392	1.246	1.352	1.343
Minimum	1	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum	5	5	5	5	5	5

Table 4.13 Descriptive analysis of Pay/Salary

In Table 4.14 different sub-factors of pay/benefits are shown. Among all, pay satisfaction scored the lowest mean value i.e. 2.67 meaning that respondents agreed that pay satisfaction is their major concern for job switching. After pay satisfaction, respondents prioritized performance basis pay, insufficient pay, inadequate allowances and pay fairness with mean score 2.76, 2.82, 2.88, 2.97 respectively. However pay insecure with mean value of 3.02 indicated that respondents' less prioritized, than the previous ones.

4.2.3.1 Frequency analysis of Pay/Salary

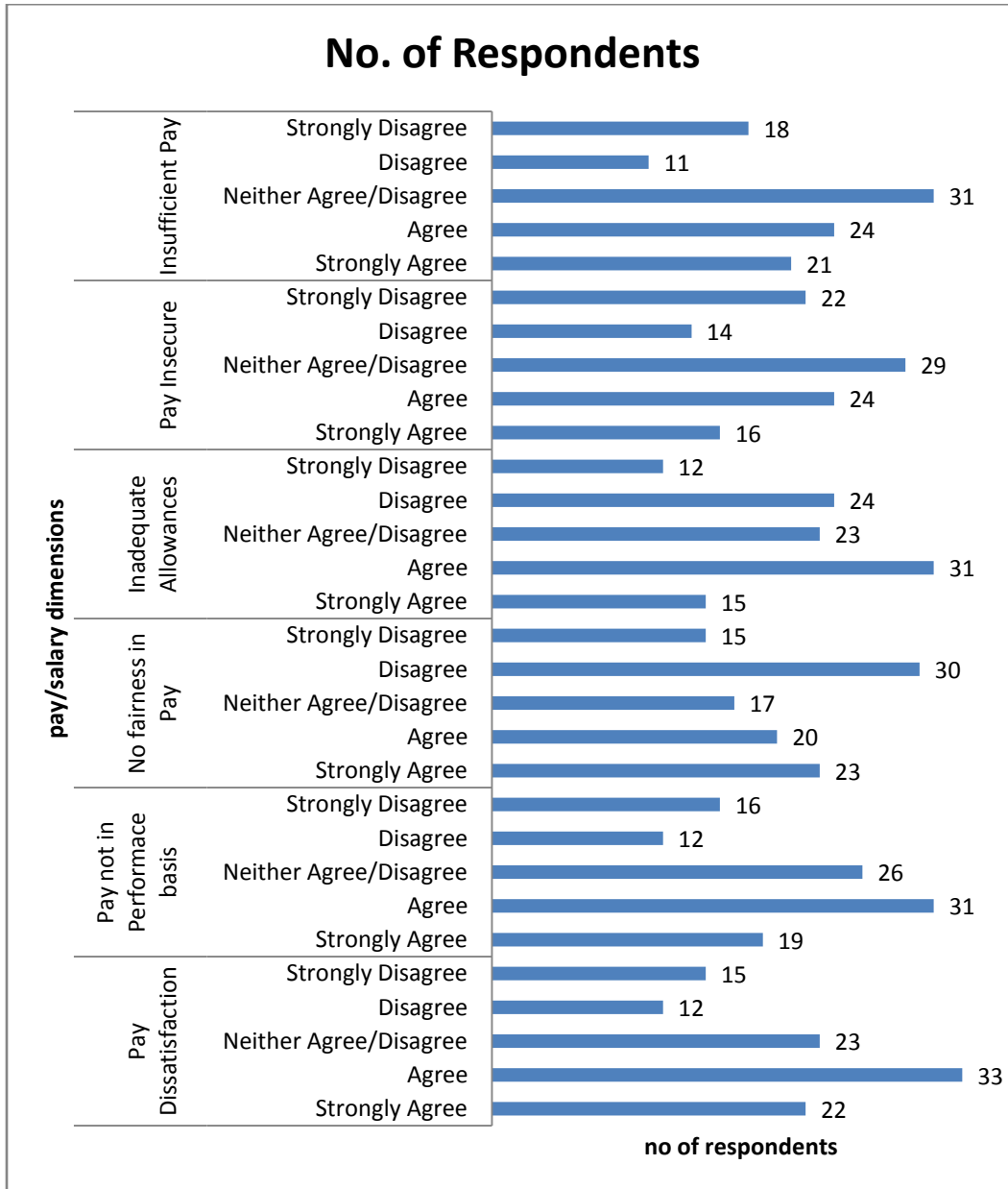


Figure 4.13: Frequency analysis of pay/salary.

As far as this question was concerned, 33 respondents agree that pay dissatisfaction does matter when it came to switching to another bank, but for the same question 12 believed that pay dissatisfaction does not matter for them to move new organization. When question asked regarding whether pay is not on the basis of performance, 31 respondents believed that pay should be there on the basis of performance whereas 12 respondents put

their opposed voice that pay is not necessarily important for them. Talking about pay fairness 30 respondents said pay fairness has nothing to do with job switching moreover other 15 respondents strongly did not agreed with the statement. In other hand 31 respondents agreed that inadequate allowances had led them to switch to new organization, however for the same 15 respondents responded that they inadequate allowances is not their prime reason for job mobility. For the question asked pay insecure and job switching, 29 respondents were stand on neutral point but 14 bankers did not agreed to the question. Likewise, 31 bankers said that they are in neutral position to the question that is insufficient pay had led them to come in new bank however there were 11 respondents who had a different opinion that they did not believe accept that insufficient par is cause for their job change.

4.2.3 Descriptive analysis of Job promotion

	Job Efficiency	Promotion Infrequent	Promotion Irregular	Less Promotion Opportunities	Promotion Fairness	Length of Services
Mean	2.66	2.61	2.71	2.72	2.91	2.90
Std. Deviation	1.270	1.221	1.261	1.348	1.241	1.383
Minimum	1	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum	5	5	5	5	5	5

Table 4.14: Descriptive analysis of Job promotion

Table 4.6 consists of sub-factors related to the Job promotion dimension. All the sub-factors scored mean value below 3 (mid-range value) which also implies that all sub-factors of job promotion plays role in job switching. Among the set of questions of this dimension, promotion infrequent scored the lowest mean value i.e. 2.61, meaning that respondents agreed that infrequent job promotion is valued by the respondents highly than others options. Similarly, promotion not on the basis of job efficiency scored mean value of 2.66 which indicates that promotion should be done on the basis of work efficiency to prevent from job mobility. Promotion irregular and less promotion scored

mean value of 2.71 and 2.72 respectively indicating they have moderate importance in impacting job hopping intentions of bankers. Finally promotion on the basis of length services and promotion fairness scored highest mean values that are 2.90 and 2.91 respectively this means both of these factors has got comparatively least impact than other factors on bankers to switch to new banks.

4.2.3.1 Frequency analysis of Job promotion

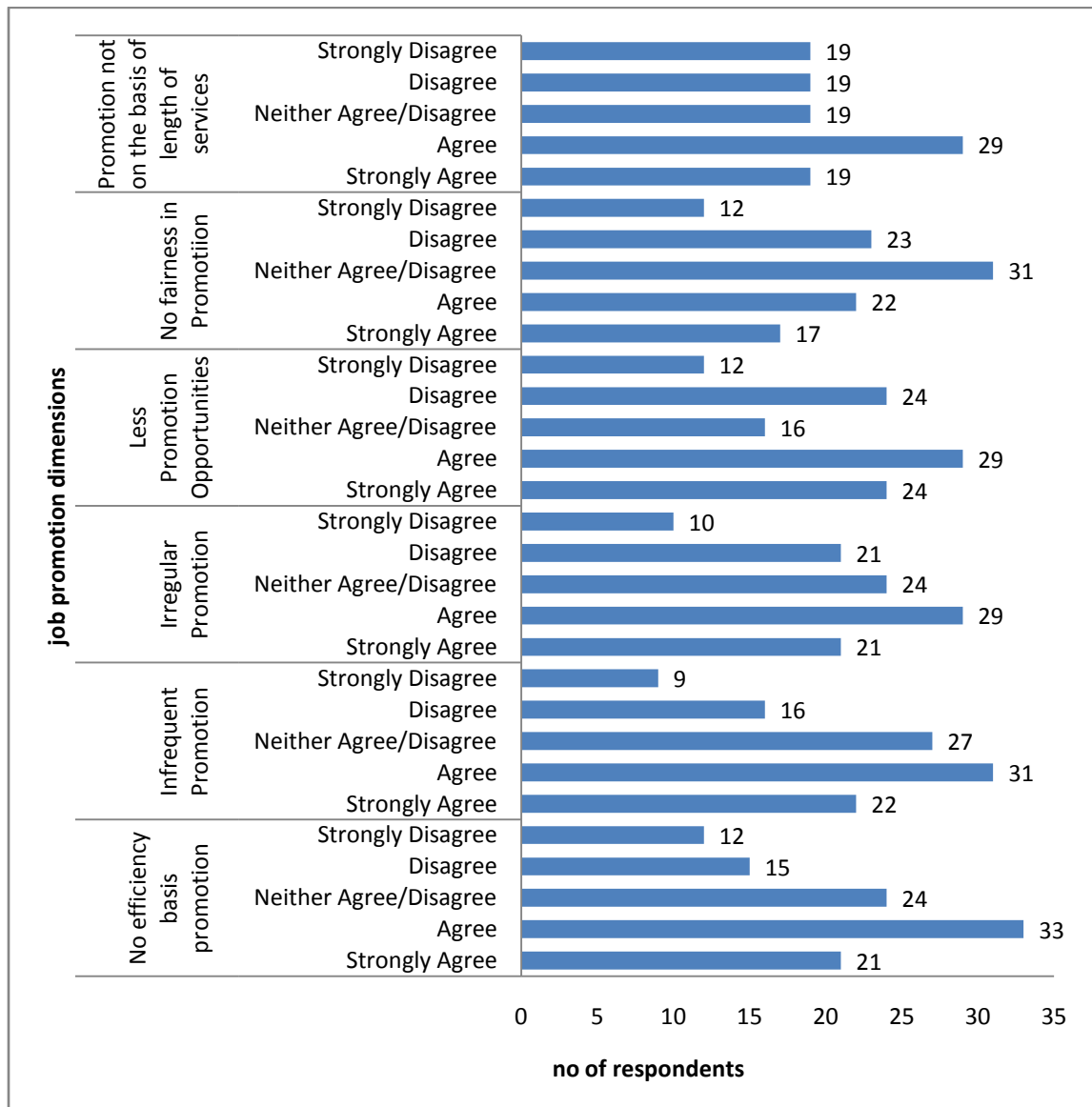


Figure 4.14: Frequency analysis of Job promotion

The Figure above shows that, 33 respondents agreed that they had switched their job because their promotion was not on the basis of their job efficiency however 12 respondents does not accepted that they had changed their job due to the reason mentioned above. In case of infrequent promotion 31 respondents agreed that the reason for changing their job is infrequent promotion in previous organization but interesting 9 respondents gave oppose reason that they strongly disagreed that they did not switched their job due to the infrequent promotion. At the same time 29 respondents agreed irregular promotion being one of the reason for their job switching whereas 10 respondents strongly disagreed to the same reason. 29 respondents agreed less promotion opportunities had led them to change their job but 12 bankers strongly disagree that less promotion was not reason for their job hopping. Likewise, 31 respondents said that neither they agree nor disagree that they have switch to new bank due to unfairness in promotion in the previous organization while respondents strongly disagreed that unfairness in promotion was not the reason for their job switching. 29 respondents said that they have changed their organization because their promotion was not on the basis of length of their services to the previous bank while 19 respondents

4.2.4 Descriptive analysis of Career growth

	Less secure career path	Less career development	Poor career prospect	Less support to career goals	Not suits to skills	Less chances to build networks of professional	No social Status
Mean	2.67	2.5	2.74	2.73	2.79	2.99	2.88
Std. Dev	1.306	1.161	1.264	1.179	1.253	1.252	1.313
Minimum	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum	5	5	5	5	5	5	5

Table 4.15: Descriptive analysis of Career growth

In Table 4.15 the sub-factors related to the career growth are shown. All the factors has got the mean value less than score 3 (mid-range value) which also implies that all these

factors plays role in impacting job switching behaviors of bankers. Among all factors less career development scored the least mean value i.e. 2.5 indicating that respondents agreed that career development opportunities is highly valued than other sub-factors. Similarly, less secured career path scored mean value of 2.67 meaning that less secured career path have impact on job hopping behaviors of bankers. Less support to career goals, poor career prospect and not suits to personal skills scored mean value of 2.73, 2.74 and 2.79 respectively that means all these factors has also impact upon job switching behaviors. Less social status and less professional networks has mean value 2.88 and 2.99 indicating they have least impact on job hopping intentions of bankers.

4.2.4.1 Frequency analysis of Career growth

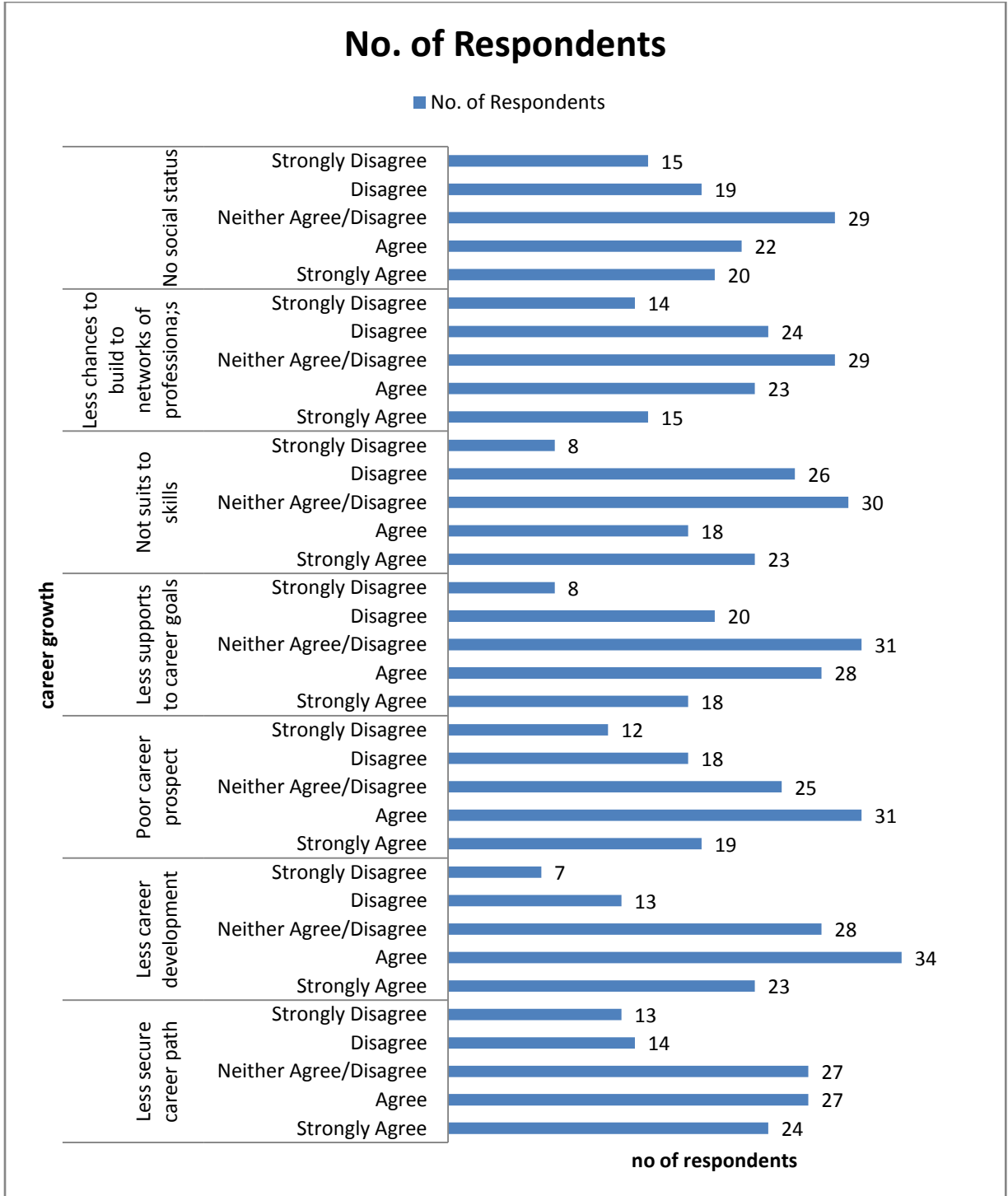


Figure 4.15: Frequency analysis of Career growth

The Figure 4.15 above shows that, 27 respondents agreed that they had switched their job because they had less secure career path in the previous bank and another 27 respondents responded that they are neutral regarding secure career path as reason for changing their job however 13 respondents strongly disagreed that secured career path has nothing to do with their job change. 34 respondents responded that they agreed that the reason for changing their job is less career development but interesting 7 respondents strongly disagreed that they did not switched their job due to the less career development in previous organization. In case of poor career prospect, 31 respondents said they agreed that they have changed their job due to poor career prospect but 12 bankers strongly disagreed that poor career prospect is not the reason for their job hopping. At the same time 31 respondents were in neutral position when asked whether they have switch to new organization due to less supports to career goals in previous organization however 8 respondents responded that they strongly not agree with the above reason. 30 respondents said neither they agree nor disagree to the question that they have change their bank due to their skills does not suits to the earlier organization whereas 8 bankers strongly unaccepted the same question. Likewise 29 bankers were also in neutral position when asked to them less professional networks being one of the reasons for their job switching whereas 14 respondents strongly disagreed to the same reason. Finally, 29 respondents too were also were in neutral position to the statement that they have switch to new bank due to the low social status of working in earlier organization but 15 organization disagree to the same question.

4.3 Hypothesis Test

This section deals with the analysis of possible relationships between prior formulated variables. For this purpose, the researcher tested hypotheses conducting correlation analysis between the job hopping and dimensions of job hopping using SPSS software.

4.3.1 Job satisfaction and Job switching

4.3.1.1 Hypothesis (H₀₁): There is no relationship between job satisfaction dimension and Job switching.

Correlations

		Overall Job hopping	Overall Job satisfaction
Overall Job satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	-.158	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.108	
	N	105	105

Table 4.16: Correlation between Job satisfaction and Job switching

Table 4.12 shows the correlation analysis between job satisfaction dimension and Job switching. Since the p value is more than alpha i.e. $0.108 > 0.10$, the correlation is insignificant between the variables. From this it can be understood that job satisfaction is not important for the bankers when changing their banks. Further, with the correlation coefficient value of -0.158, it can be said that there is negative relationship between job satisfaction dimension and job switching.

4.3.2 Job Pay/Salary and Job switching

4.3.2.1 Hypothesis (H₀₂): There is no relationship between pay/salary dimension and Job switching.

Correlation

		Overall Job Hopping	Overall Pay/Salary
Overall Pay/Salary	Pearson Correlation	-.059	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.551	
	N	104	104

Table 4.17: Correlation between Pay/Salary and Job switching

The correlation analysis between pay/salary dimension and job switching has been shown in table 4.16. Since the p value is more than alpha i.e. $0.551 > 0.10$, the correlation is insignificant between the variables, at 10% level of significant. Just like job satisfaction, the pay/salary does not have any influence in job switching intentions of the bankers. The correlation coefficient value of -0.59 suggest that that there is negative relationship between pay/salary dimension and job switching. Thus, hypothesis (H₀₂) is accepted at, 0.10 level of significance.

4.3.3 Job Promotion and Job switching

4.3.3.1 Hypothesis ($H0_3$): There is no relationship between job promotion dimension and Job switching.

Correlation

		Overall Job hopping	Overall Job Promotion
Overall Job Promotion	Pearson Correlation	-.185	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.058	
	N	105	105

Table 4.18: Correlation between job promotion dimension and Job switching

Table 4.17 shows the correlation analysis between job promotion dimension and job switching. Since the p value is less than alpha i.e. $0.058 < 0.10$, the correlation is significant between the variables, at 10% level of significant. Further, with the correlation coefficient value of -0.185, it can be said that there is negative relationship between promotion and job hopping. Therefore, hypothesis ($H0_3$) is rejected at, 0.10 level of significance.

4.3.4 Career growth and Job switching

4.3.4.1 Hypothesis ($H0_4$): There is no relationship between career growth dimension and Job switching.

Correlations

		Overall Job Hopping	Overall Career Growth
Overall Career Growth	Pearson Correlation	-.243*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013	
	N	105	105

Table 4.19: Correlation between Career growth dimension and Job switching

The correlation analysis between career growth dimension and job switching has been shown in Table 4.18. The p value is less than alpha i.e. $0.013 < 0.10$, that means the correlation is significant between the variables, at 10% level of significant. Further, with the correlation coefficient value of -0.243, it can be said that there is negative

relationship between promotion and job hopping. Therefore, hypothesis (HO4) is rejected at, 0.10 level of significance.

4.4 Major Findings of the Study

From the study of the literature discussed and the analysis of the data, the major findings have been present below.

- After the correlation analysis between job switching behavior and job satisfaction dimensions, it was found that the p value is higher than alpha i.e. $0.108 > 0.10$, so the correlation is insignificant between the job switching behavior and job satisfaction dimensions. Further, with the correlation coefficient value of -0.158 , it can be said that there is negative relationship between job satisfaction dimensions and job switching behavior of Nepalese bankers. Hence, it can be concluded that there is an insignificant relationship between job satisfaction dimensions and job switching behavior of Nepalese bankers
- After the correlation analysis between pay/salary and job switching behaviors of bankers, it was found that the p value is more than alpha i.e. $0.551 > 0.1$, so the correlation is insignificant between the between job satisfaction dimensions and job switching behavior. Further, with the correlation coefficient value of -0.059 , it can be said that there is negative relationship between job satisfaction dimensions and job switching behavior. Hence, there is insignificant relationship between job satisfaction dimensions and job switching behavior of Nepalese bankers.
- After the correlation analysis between job promotion and job switching behaviors of Nepalese bankers, it was found that the p value is less than alpha i.e. $0.058 < 0.01$, so the correlation is significant between job promotion and job switching behaviors. Further, with the correlation coefficient value of -0.185 , it can be said that there is negative relationship between job promotion and job switching behaviors. Therefore, there is significant relationship between job promotion and job switching behaviors of Nepalese bankers.

- After the correlation analysis between career growth and job switching behaviors of Nepalese bankers, it was found that the p value is lower than alpha i.e. $0.013 < 0.01$, so the correlation is significant between career growth and job switching behaviors. Further, with the correlation coefficient value of -0.243 , it can be said that there is negative relationship between career growth and job switching behaviors.

Thus, we can conclude that job satisfaction has higher correlation with the job switching behavior of bankers among all other dimensions of job switching behaviors.

Chapter V

Summary and conclusion

In the previous chapter, the data analysis and hypotheses testing were done according to the objectives of the study. This chapter gives a brief overview of the findings and conclusion of the study. This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section includes summary of the findings, the second section includes the conclusion of the study derived from the findings and the third section includes the suggestions for future research.

5.1 Summary

The study was conducted in 10 different commercial banks of Nepal among the 105 respondents. The main objective of the study is to understand the influence of job hopping determinants on job hopping decision. Over recent years Nepalese banks has been facing the lots of employees turnover. In a concrete sense job switching has become common trend in banking sectors of Nepal and there has been significant increase in job switching behaviors among bankers.

The main objective of this research is to analyze the relationship between job hopping and factors affecting job hopping behaviors. The research was mainly focused on the commercial banking industry of Nepal. Among the respondents, male respondents were more than female respondents. The male respondents were 54.3% and female respondents were 45.7%. In the marital status, 68.6% respondents were unmarried and 31.4 % respondents were married. Talking about age group majority of respondents was mainly in between 25-55 years of age who comprised 78.1% of the total respondents. However, very few respondents above 45-55 years (1%) and 35-45 years (2.9%) also participated in this research. Most of the respondents had masters (52 respondents) and bachelors (48 respondents) level of education. There were no respondents who have done Ph.D. and just 1 respondent from Chartered Accountant level of education. Among the respondents, 85.7% were non-executive and 14.3% were executive. Similarly, 39 %

respondents responded that they are engaged with their current organization for 3 and above years and there were just 17.2% respondents who have worked for their respective banks for less than 1 year. 89.5% said that job switching was their personal choice whereas 9.5% respondents replied it was mandatory for them when asked to them whether job switching was their personal choice. And lastly, 66.7% bankers said that they are planning to switch to other banks within coming two years of time while 33.3% respondents replied that they will not switch to another banks.

5.2 Conclusion

Banking sector is one of the flourishing services industries in Nepal. Numbers of commercial banks in Nepal are operating very well in terms of financial capabilities or in terms of satisfactions of their clients. And the most crucial part is attraction towards the banking industries is in increasing trend, mostly youth population has targeted banks to enhance their career growth. In recent years the number of expansions of the banks led the bankers to become choosy and ultimately bankers get chances to engage in different organization as per their wish. Due to this fact the competition in banking sector is very tough.

On the other hand banking industries has been providing lots of facilities to magnetize the talented human capital in their organization. The facilities like job promotion, pay/benefits, working environment, career growth opportunities etc. However Job hopping has numerous negative impacts on existing banks whereas some positive impact to the switched bank. Due to the intense turnover of the key employees banks have to lose the productive manpower and likewise they have bear cost of hiring new employees. Whereas for the organization where people has switched will get the opportunities to gain productive manpower effortlessly and cost of providing addition to newly recruit employees etc. From the employees' perspective, job switching will help them to enter into the new working environment where they can have possibility to enhance career growth, become financially strong and satisfied with their job.

From the findings of this study it can be concluded that job switching is familiar term in banking sector. From the fact that 67.7% of the respondents being surveyed in this study

said in coming two years of time they are planning to change existing bank. This proves that still bank employees are in a mood to switch their bank in coming years. And this might be the serious challenge or problem for the employers. Likewise all the factors (job satisfaction, pay/salary, job promotion and career growth) taken in this study were found to have negative impact upon job switching, it can be said that these factors have led the bank employees to switch their existing organization. However from the outputs of this research it has been found that career growth and job promotion has played the significant roles in the job turnover of the bankers. Therefore to prevent the organization from the huge loss from the turnover of the talented and productive manpower the employers should mainly focus on these two factors.

5.3 Recommendations

The focus of this research is to study the influence of job hopping dimensions on job hopping decision, in the light of determinants derived from extensive literature review. The determinants derived were job satisfaction dimension, pay/salary dimension, and job promotion dimension and career growth factors. Besides these there are other factors that contribute in affecting the job switching behaviors of the Nepalese bankers like company brand, organizational philosophy, working conditions etc. So, other variables need to be taken into consideration for future research.

There has been carried out least research works related to job switching behaviors of people from banking sector. This study can assist other researchers when conducting similar kinds of research works. As in this study there are numbers of prospective matters to be researched from the findings generated from this research work. The sample size undertaken for this research was very limited so in future other researchers could select more number of sample sizes so that the better and more reliable result could be achieved. As this study is purely an academic research. Therefore in future more professional research should be conducted so that more accurate information could be gained and that will be helpful for the employers to gain insights about factors leading to job switching among bank employees. Accordingly that will help them to go for corrective remedies to stop job hopping.

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QUESTIONNAIRE FOR DATA COLLECTION

I am a MBS student at Nepal Commerce Campus. I am conducting a research for my thesis on Job hopping/ switching behaviors of bank employees.

The following questionnaire contains questions regarding the job hopping and factors affecting job hopping. There are no right and wrong answers. Please ensure that you select all your responses listed under the different facets. Your responses will be treated with the utmost confidentiality; therefore no provision is made on the questionnaire for you to write down your name. I assure you that the information provided is for research purposes only. I want to take this opportunity to thank you for availing yourself and thereby contributing towards making my research thesis a success.

Part One

Name of the Organization _____

Gender

Male Female

Marital status

Unmarried Married

Age

Below 25 25- 35 35-45 45-55 55 and above

Academic Qualification

Intermediate Bachelor Masters Ph.D. Others

Job Designation

Non- executive Executive

1. How long have you been working in this bank?

Below 1 year 1-2 year 2-3 year 3 & above

Contd....

2. Recruiters hire someone who stays a long time at companies because that will mean the person will stay a long time at their company.'

Do you agree on above statement?

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree / Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

3. Has job hopping trend become common nowadays in banking industry?

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree / Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

4. Rank in order of importance ('1' - most important, '4 ' least important) why you think people job hop.

- i) Job Satisfaction ()
- ii) Salary/Pay ()
- iii) Job Promotion ()
- iv) Career Growth ()

5. Do you intend to change your current employer within the next two years?

Yes

No

Part Two

Please give 5 for most important and 1 for least important

Job satisfaction

I have switched to new job from previous job because:

S.N		1	2	3	4	5
1	it was less interesting to me					
2	the working condition was not suitable to me					
3	lack of clear communication of its goals and strategies					
4	earlier job provides less information to accomplish it					
5	there is discrimination in the workplace					
6	I did not receive appropriate recognition of my contribution					
7	the supervisor is un supportive to me					
8	there was less job security					

Pay/Benefits

I went to new organization because:

S.N		1	2	3	4	5
1	my remuneration was not satisfactory					
2	the pay was not on the basis of job performance					
3	there was no fairness in pay in the organization					
4	the allowances I used to receive was in adequate					
5	my pay was very insecure					
6	my salary was insufficient for my living expenses					

Job Promotion

I have switched to new job from previous job because:

S.N		1	2	3	4	5
1	the promotion was not on the basis of job efficiency					
2	promotion in the previous organization was infrequent					
3	promotion in the organization is irregular					
4	There was less promotion opportunities					
5	There is was no fairness in promotion					
6	Promotion was not on the basis of the length of services					

Career Growth

I have move towards new job because:

S.N		1	2	3	4	5
1	I have a less secured path for career advancement					
2	the opportunity for career development within the company was very low					
3	the organization had poor career prospect for the employees					
4	it did not supports my other goals in life financial security, family, learning, physical & mental health, social life					
5	it did not suit my skills, interests, and experience					
6	it did not help to build a network of professionals					
7	it did not provides higher social status to me					